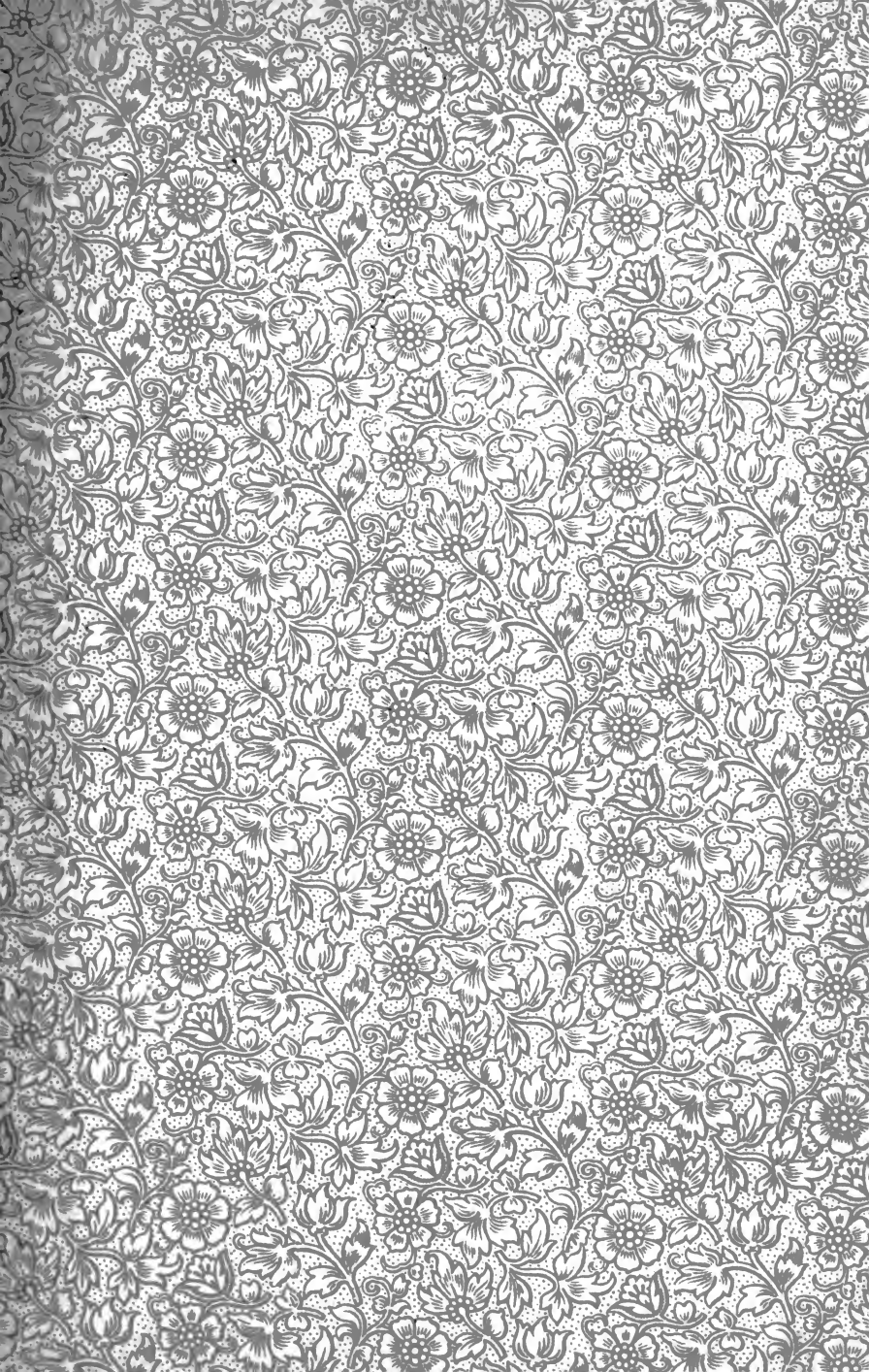


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A GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE,
WITH AN
ANALYSIS OF THE SENTENCE.

BY
JOHN S. HART, LL. D.,

LATE PROFESSOR OF RHETORIC AND OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITER-
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NEW JERSEY STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, AUTHOR OF A SERIES OF
TEXT-BOOKS ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, ETC., ETC.

REVISED EDITION.



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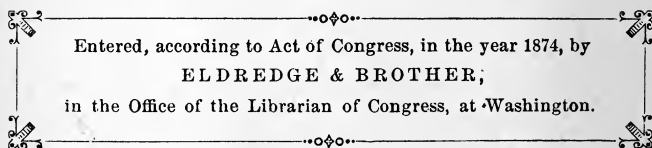
A SERIES OF TEXT-BOOKS
ON
THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

By JOHN S. HART, LL.D.

Language-Lessons for Beginners.
An Elementary English Grammar.
English Grammar and Analysis.
First Lessons in Composition.
Composition and Rhetoric.

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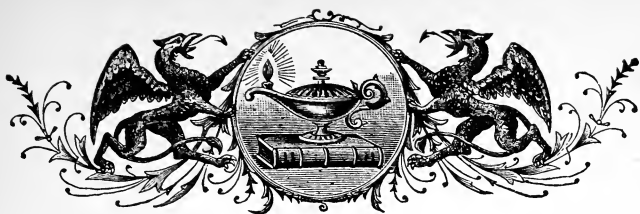


PREFACE TO THE REVISED EDITION.

IN the present edition, the publishers have deemed it advisable, in deference to the prevailing method of teaching language, to make certain changes in the arrangement of the book.

Without altering the text in any appreciable degree, they have removed many of the notes scattered through the book. These notes, purely explanatory, while of great value to the teacher, are of little value to the learner.

They have deemed it advisable to accustom the pupil to the phraseology of Analysis at an early stage of the study of Grammar, and accordingly examples bearing upon that subject have been introduced where necessary. It is believed that the changes that have been made will enhance the value of a book which for many years has been an object of intelligent affection to many teachers.



PREFACE TO THE ORIGINAL EDITION.



THE author, having in great measure rewritten his English Grammar, presents it once more to the consideration of the teachers of the country. The work, as now offered, is the result of long experience in the class-room, and of no little reading and study. The English language and its literature have been for many years the main subjects of the author's inquiry, and he has endeavored in this volume to give the results of his observations in the form which his experience as a teacher has convinced him to be the best adapted to the wants of the learner.

The points aimed at have been twofold:

First, to give some knowledge of grammar in general. This is the more necessary, as most of those who study English grammar study no other language, and have no other means of studying the laws of language as a means of expressing thought.

Secondly, to set forth the forms and laws peculiar to the English language. The English has indeed been called, somewhat irreverently, "the grammarless tongue." Its inflections, it must be confessed, are meagre, as compared with those of the Latin and Greek. Such is the condition of almost every modern tongue. Yet our English has its idioms, as every foreigner learns to his cost, and is not entirely without its inflections. An accurate knowledge of these idioms and inflections is of incalculable value to every one who would be at home in the use of the language.

There is an opinion widely prevalent among the teachers of classical

schools, that boys fitting for college have no need to study English grammar. From that opinion the author begs leave respectfully, but most earnestly, to dissent. If he mistakes not, a growing majority of those who are called upon to examine candidates for admission to college will bear him out in his position. The study of Latin and Greek gives indeed a knowledge of the grammar of those languages, and some knowledge of grammar in general, but it does *not* give a knowledge of English grammar. Does Latin grammar teach a boy our common rules for Spelling, which are a guide to the correct writing of not less than twenty thousand English words? Does it teach him the origin, form, and uses of the English Possessive? Does it, to take one instance out of hundreds that might be named, teach him the syntax of the phrase "For *David* thy father's sake"? Does it teach him the rules for the formation of the English Plural? —the peculiarities of the Past Participle Active? Does it not lead him into grave mistakes in regard to the forms and uses of the English verb?

A word as to the method pursued. The author has endeavored to bear in mind that he was writing, not a treatise for the learned, but a text-book for learners. For such a book,—

The first and most imperative demand is CLEARNESS,—clearness of arrangement, and clearness of expression.

Next and hardly less imperative is the demand that the more and the less important should be carefully discriminated, and the difference plainly set forth to the eye.

A third imperative demand is that the rules, definitions, and other matter to be committed to memory, should be expressed with the utmost possible conciseness.

A fourth requisite is that every rule and definition should be supported and illustrated by a goodly array of apt practical examples. These are as necessary in teaching grammar as sums are in teaching arithmetic.

How far these things have been secured is for the reader to judge.

J. S. H.



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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Grammar is the science which treats of Language.*

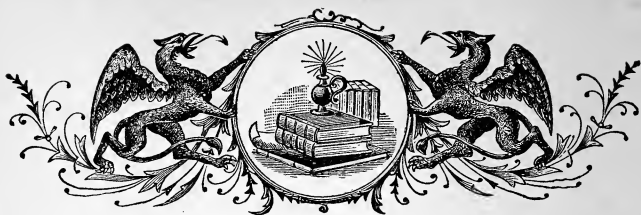
Grammar is divided into four parts ; namely, ORTHOGRAPHY, ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX, and PROSODY.

Orthography treats of *Letters*, Etymology of *Words*, Syntax of *Sentences*, and Prosody of *Versification*.

* The matter in this book is divided into two kinds, indicated by two varieties of type, and it is important that the object of this arrangement should be clearly understood.

It is intended that the pupil should first go through the book, learning the matter in the larger type, the declensions and conjugations, such portion of the matter in the smaller type, and such portions of the Exercises, as may be found expedient, with such oral explanations from the teacher as may be necessary.

Having gone over the whole ground once, or perhaps twice, in this way, the pupil will be prepared to take up profitably the remaining portion of the Exercises, and the matter in the smaller type.



FIRST PART.



ORTHOGRAPHY.

ORTHOGRAPHY treats of LETTERS.

Orthography treats first of letters taken separately, and then of the mode of forming them into syllables and words, which is called spelling.

I. LETTERS TAKEN SEPARATELY.

Letters are written characters or signs used to represent certain sounds of the human voice.

A letter that is not sounded in speaking is called a *silent* letter.

The letters of any Language are called its Alphabet. The English Alphabet contains twenty-six letters.

Letters are divided into VOWELS and CONSONANTS. Consonants are subdivided into MUTES and SEMI-VOWELS.

A Vowel may be fully sounded by itself.

A Consonant cannot be fully sounded unless in connection with a vowel.

This classification has its foundation in the action of the organs in uttering the letters.

When the mouth, throat, and other organs of speech are opened in a particular position, and the voice is allowed to flow out in a continuous and uniform current, without any change in the position of the organs, the sound so formed is called a **Vowel**. In this manner we may prolong the sound of *a* indefinitely, or until out of breath. If, while the voice is thus issuing from the mouth, the current of sound is interrupted by a partial compression of the organs, the sound becomes a **Semi-vowel**. Thus, while prolonging the sound of *a*, if we press the tongue upon the upper part of the mouth, but allow the voice still to proceed, the sound becomes that of the letter *l*, as in the word *ale*. If this compression becomes so great as actually to close the organs, the sound ceases, and in the very act of ceasing gives rise to a **Mute**. Thus, in the case just mentioned, if instead of pressing the tongue upon the roof of the mouth, we press it against the teeth, and entirely stop the passage of the voice, the actual termination of the sound is that indicated by the letter *t*, as in the word *ate*. This process may be reversed. The letter *t* may be formed first and the vowel follow it, as in pronouncing the word *tale*. In this case the mute is the very beginning of sound.

A **Mute**, then, is the mere commencement or termination of the sound, on opening or closing the organs; a **Semi-vowel** is a partial interruption or modification of the sound, caused by changing the position of the organs during utterance; and a **Vowel** is the very sound itself prolonged without change.

Vowels.

The **VOWELS** are *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*. All the other letters are **CONSONANTS**.

W and *y* are consonants when they precede a vowel sound in the same syllable; as, *won*, *young*; but are vowels in all other places; as, *boy*, *law*.

A **Diphthong** is the union of two vowels in one sound; as, *oi* in *voice*.

A **Proper Diphthong** is one in which both the vowels are

sounded. The Proper diphthongs are two, namely, *oi* and *ou*, as in *loin*, *loud*.

An Improper Diphthong is one in which only one vowel is sounded; as, *oa* in *boat*. The Improper diphthongs are numerous. Strictly speaking, they are not diphthongs, but merely single vowel sounds preceded or followed by other vowels that are not sounded.

A Triphthong is the union of three vowels in one sound; as, *ieu* in *adieu*.

The triphthongs are three in number, *eau*, *ieu*, *iew*; as in *beauty*, *lieutenant*, *review*. Like improper diphthongs, they contain only one vowel sound.

U after *q* is never considered as part of a diphthong or of a triphthong.

Consonants.

The Consonants are divided into MUTES and SEMI-VOWELS.

The Mutes and Semi-vowels may be distinguished both by the name and by the sound.

In naming the mutes, the accompanying vowel usually follows; as, *pe*, *be*; in naming the semi-vowels, the accompanying vowel precedes; as, *ef*, *el*.

In sounding the mutes, the voice is stopped short, as in *ap*; in sounding the semi-vowels, the voice may be prolonged, as in *al*.

The mutes are *b*, *d*, *k*, *p*, *q*, *t*, and *c* and *g* hard.

The semi-vowels are *f*, *h*, *j*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *s*, *v*, *x*, *z*; *c* and *g* soft, and *w* and *y*, when they are not vowels.

Four of the semi-vowels, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, are also called LIQUIDS.

The consonants are sometimes divided according to the part of the vocal organs by which they are formed. The principal divisions of this sort are *labials*, *dentals*, *palatals*, *gutturals*, *nasals*, and *linguals*.

Labials are formed chiefly by the *lips*, Dentals by the *teeth*, Palatals by the *palate*, Gutturals by the *throat*, Nasals by the *nose*, and Linguals by the *tongue*.

The Labials are *p, b, f, v*; the Dentals *t, d, c* soft, *s, z*; the Palatals *g* soft and *j*; the Gutturals *k, q*, and *c* and *g* hard; the Nasals *m* and *n*; and the Linguals *l* and *r*.

Exercises.—Classify the letters of the following words according to the divisions named above—*i. e.*, in each word name: 1, the vowels; 2, the consonants; 3, the mutes; 4, the semi-vowels; 5, the liquids; 6, the labials, etc.

Multitudinous, frequently, upheaval, influential, algebra, robbery, lieutenant, grotesque, reviewing, ocean, herbaceous, knowledge, slaughter, employer, thievish, joyfully, willow, willingly, yielding.

II. WORDS AND SYLLABLES.

A Word is a collection of letters used together to represent some idea.

A Syllable is so much of a word as can be pronounced by one impulse of the voice; as, *con* in *contain*.

Spelling is putting letters together correctly so as to form syllables and words.

There are as many syllables in a word as there are vowels and diphthongs, not counting those which are silent or unsounded.

A word of one syllable is called a **Monosyllable**; of two, a **Dissyllable**; of three, a **Trisyllable**; of more than three, a **Polysyllable**.

Example.—Truth is a *monosyllable*; truth-ful, a *dissyllable*; truth-ful-ness, a *trisyllable*; un-truth-ful-ness, a *polysyllable*.

Exercise.—To what class does each of the following words belong?

Nation, uprightness, incomprehensible, authority, frequent, plague, opportunity, horse, element, elementary, robber, vowel, consonant.

Rules for Spelling.

RULE I.—Y final.

Part 1.—*Y* final, preceded by a consonant, is changed into *i* on taking a suffix; as, *fanc-y*, *fanc-i-ful* (not *fanc-y-ful*).

A suffix is a letter or syllable added to the end of a word.

Exception 1.—Before *ous*, *y* sometimes becomes *e*, as *beaut-y*, *beaut-e-ous*.

Exception 2.—Before *ing*, *y* is not changed; as, *tarr-y*, *tarr-y-ing*.

Part 2.—*Y* final, preceded by a vowel, is not changed on taking a suffix; as, *play*, *play-er*.

Exceptions.—*Day*, which makes *daily*; *lay*, *pay*, and *say*, which make *laid*, *paid*, and *said*, together with various other derivatives and compounds, as *mis-laid*, *unpaid*, *unsaid*, etc.

Exercises.—Write the words formed by adding *ful* to *mercy*, *plenty*, *bounty*, *duty*, *pity*; by adding *es* and *ing* to *cry*, *pry*, *try*, *apply*, *deny*, *rely*; by adding *er* and *est* to *merry*, *sorry*, *saucy*, *holy*; by adding *hood* to *likely*; *craft* to *handy*; *ed* to *quarry*, *journey*; *ful* to *beauty*, *pity*; *ous* to *glory*, *pity*; *es* to *melody*; *ous* to *melody*; *ety* to *gay*; *ly* to *gay*, *witty*; *er* to *betray*, *witty*; *ing* to *journey*.

Write ten examples of *y* final changed to *i*, under Part 1 of the Rule.

Five examples of *y* final becoming *e*, under Exception 1.

Five examples of *y* final not changed, under Exception 2.

Ten examples of *y* final not changed, under Part 2 of the Rule.

RULE II.—E final, silent.

Part 1.—*E* final, silent, on taking a suffix beginning with a vowel, is dropped; as, *care*, *car-ing*.

Exception 1.—*Ie*, on taking the suffix *ing*, is changed into *y*; as, *die*, *dy-ing*.

Exception 2.—*Dye* (to color), *hoe*, and *shoe* do not drop *e* on taking the suffix *ing*; as, *dye-ing*, *hoe-ing*, *shoe-ing*.

Exception 3.—*Singe*, *swinge*, and *tinge* do not drop *e* on taking the suffix *ing*. This is to retain the soft sound of the *g*, and to distinguish them from the corresponding forms of *sing*, *swing*, *ting*. Thus: *sing-ing*, *swing-ing*, *ting-ing*; *singe-ing*, *swinge-ing*, *tinge-ing*.

Exception 4.—*Ce* and *ge*, on taking a suffix beginning with *a*, *o*, or *u*, do not drop the *e*. This is to retain the soft sound of the *c* and *g*. Thus: *service-able*, not *servic-able*; *change-able*, not *chang-able*.

Part 2.—*E* final, silent, on taking a suffix beginning with a consonant is not dropped; as, *care*, *care-ful*.

Exceptions.—*Judgment*, *lodgment*, *abridgment*, *acknowledgment*, *argument*; *wisdom*, *nursling*; *duly*, *truly*, *awful*, with some corresponding derivatives of *due* and *true*, such as *duty*, *dutiful*, *truth*, *truthful*.

Exercises.—Write the words formed by adding *ing* to *bite*, *force*, *revive*; by adding *able* to *admire*, *adore*, *deplore*; *en* to *ripe*; *ing* to *smoke*, *tie*, *pave*, *trace*, *lie*; *ness* to *ripe*, *repulsive*; *ical* to *sphere*; *ant* to *dispute*; *some* to *tire*; *ment* to *pave*; *able* to *service*, *cure*, *marriage*, *trace*; *ible*, to *defense*; *ous* to *fame*, *courage*; *less* to *defense*.

Exercises.—Write:—

Ten examples of *e* final dropped, under Part 1 of the Rule.

Five examples of *ie* changed to *y*, under Exception 1.

Ten examples of *e* final not dropped, under Part 2 of the Rule.

RULE III.—Words ending in *ll*.

Words ending in *ll* drop one *l* on taking a suffix beginning with a consonant; as, *full*, *fulness*; also sometimes on taking a prefix; as, *full*, *hand-ful*; *till*, *un-til*.

Exercises.—Write the words formed by adding to *all* the words *though, together*; by combining *with* and *all*; by combining *arm* and *full*; *all* and *most*; *all* and *ways*; *full* and *fill*; *well* and *come*; *use* and *full*.

Exercises.—Write :—

Ten examples of *l* dropped on taking a suffix.

Ten examples of *l* dropped on taking a prefix.

RULE IV.—Doubling the final consonant.

In words accented on the last syllable, a final consonant, if single, and if preceded by a single vowel, is doubled on taking a suffix beginning with a vowel; as, *permit, permit-t-ing*.

Monosyllables, being always accented, come of course under this rule.

Here are four conditions :

1. The last syllable must have the accent.
2. It must end in a single consonant.
3. This single consonant must be preceded by a single vowel.
4. The suffix must begin with a vowel.

There are more than sixty words about which there is a disagreement among lexicographers as to whether the final consonant should or should not be doubled. These words, ending chiefly in *l*, conform to the three other conditions of the rule, but are not accented on the last syllable. Webster and those who accept him as an authority do not double the final consonant in these cases. Worcester and his English predecessors, Richardson, Walker, Johnson and others, double the final consonant. Worcester writes *travel, travelling, traveller*; *worship, worshipping, worshipper*. Webster writes *travel, traveling, traveler*; *worship, worshipping, worshiper*.

The words in question are the following: *worship, kidnap, compromit, bias*; *carburet, sulphuret* and some other like words in chemistry; and the following fifty-three in *l*, namely, *apparel, bevel, bowel, embowel, cancel, carol, cavit, channel, chisel, counsel,*

cudgel, dishevel, drivel, duel, enamel, equal, gambol, gravel, grovel, hatchel, housel, jewel, kennel, label, laurel, level, libel, marshal, marvel, model, panel, empanel, parallel, parcel, pencil, peril, imperil, pistol, pommel, quarrel, ravel, unravel, revel, rival, rowel, shovel, shrivel, snivel, tassel, trammel, travel, tunnel, victual.

Exercises.—Write the words formed by adding *ing* and *ed* to *remit*, *impel*; *ist* to *drug*, *machine*, *novel*, *natural*; *er* to *revel*; *ed* to *fulfil*, *rub*, *fail*, *refer*; *ing* to *squat*, *sail*, *gallop*, *hum*; *ant* to *assist*; *ent* to *excel*; *ine* to *adamant*; *ate* to *alien*, *origin*; *en* to *red*, *moist*, *fright*; *ar* to *consul*; *er* to *propel*; *ous* to *mountain*; *y* to *mud*, *meal*, *sleep*; *ee* to *commit*, *absent*, *patent*; *ard* to *slug*, *drunk*.

In forming each combination, give the Rule applicable to it.

Exercises.—Write:—

Ten examples of doubling the final consonant under the Rule.

Five examples in which the *first* condition only is wanting.

Five, in which the *second* only is wanting.

Five, in which the *third* only is wanting.

Five, in which the *fourth* only is wanting.

RULE V.—The terminations *eive* and *ieve*.

In such words as *receive*, *relieve*, *ei* is used if the letter *c* precedes; as, *receive*, *deceive*; but *ie* is used if any other letter precedes; as, *relieve*, *believe*.

Miscellaneous Exercises.

Combine the following words and suffixes, making the necessary changes; and show in each case the application of the Rule.

1. Add *ing* to *live*, *assail*, *compel*, *repent*; *est* to *lively*; *so* to *all*; *ish* to *boy*; *ed* to *commit*; *ment* to *commit*.

2. Add *ness* to *happy*, *lovely*; *full* to *art*; *some* to *whole*; *y* to *smoke*, *trick*; *able* to *love*; *th* to *true*; *full* to *truth*; *ness* to *truthful*; *ty* to *due*; *full* to *duty*; *ly* to *dutiful*.

3. Add *ing* to *copy*, *induce*, *propel*, *embroil*, *infer*; *ed* to *copy*, *delay*; *ly* to *whole*; *ment* to *induce*; *ence* to *infer*.

4. Add *er* to *refine*, *libel*; *ment* to *amaze*, *refine*; *ing* to *amaze*, *whip*; *ous* to *glory*, *beauty*; *ed* to *sulphuret*; *ful* to *beauty*.

5. Add *some* to *full*; *full* to *awe*; *fare* to *well*; *ing* to *abet*, *consent*, *remit*, *differ*; *ment* to *fulfil*.

Write the words so combined.

Draw a line through the silent letters.

Mark the accented syllable.

TOPICAL OUTLINE.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Letters	Vowels.	{	Diphthong	{ Proper,
			Triphthong.	Improper.
	Consonants.	{	Mutes,	
			Semi-vowels—liquids,	
			Labials,	
			Dentals,	
			Palatals,	
			Gutturals,	
			Nasals,	
			Linguals.	
Words	Syllables.	{	Monosyllable,	
			Dissyllable,	
			Trisyllable,	
			Polysyllable.	
Spelling		{	<i>y</i> , final—exceptions.	
			<i>e</i> , final—silent, exceptions.	
			<i>ll</i> , final.	
			Doubling the final consonant.	
			<i>eive</i> , <i>ieve</i> .	

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What is Grammar? Name its divisions. Of what does Orthography treat? Under what head is Spelling placed? What are Letters? What is an Alphabet? When is a letter silent? Into what classes are letters divided? What is a Vowel? a Consonant? a Mute? a Semi-vowel? What is a Diphthong? a Proper Diphthong? an Improper Diphthong? What is a Triphthong? How may the mutes and semi-vowels be distinguished? Name the letters that belong to the different classes. Why is a Dental so called? What is a Word? a Syllable? a Polysyllable?

In forming the following words, what word and suffix are combined? What change, if any, takes place? What rule is applicable?

Dutiful, beauteous, tarrying, player, daily, caring, dying, dyeing, singeing, changeable, careful, duly, druggist, believing.



SECOND PART.



ETYMOLOGY.

ETYMOLOGY treats of WORDS.

Words are considered in regard to their Classification, Inflection, and Derivation.

By the **Classification** of words is meant the arrangement of them into different classes, according to their signification and use.

By the **Inflection** of words is meant the change of form which they undergo.

By the **Derivation** of words is meant tracing them to their original form and meaning.

Give an illustration of each of these definitions.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

The classes of words in English are nine ; namely, ARTICLES, NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, PRONOUNS, VERBS, ADVERBS, CONJUNCTIONS, PREPOSITIONS, and INTERJECTIONS. These classes of words are sometimes called THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

The Parts of Speech may be classed and defined as follows :

1. Name Words.

Nouns.—A *Noun* is the name of any person, place, or thing; as, *John, school, book.*

2. Representative Words.

Pronouns.—A *Pronoun* is a word used instead of a noun; as, The man is happy because *he* is benevolent.

3. Action Words.

Verbs.—A *Verb* is a word used to assert or affirm; as, John *strikes* the table; Mary *studies* her lesson.

4. Modifying Words.

Articles.—An *Article* is the word *a, an, or the,* placed before a noun to show whether the noun is used in a definite, or in an indefinite sense.

Adjectives.—An *Adjective* is a word used to modify a noun or a pronoun; as, A *green* tree, A *wise* man, *Brave* soldiers, She is *studious.*

Adverbs.—An *adverb* is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as, He writes *rapidly,* A *very* fast horse, He wrote *very* rapidly.

5. Relation Words.

Prepositions.—A *Preposition* is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to some other word; as, He writes *with* a pen, He lives *in* a tent, A man *of* wisdom.

6. Connecting Words.

Conjunctions.—A *Conjunction* is a word used to connect words, sentences, and parts of sentences; as, John *and* James study, John writes *and* James reads, He is *neither* strong in body *nor* sound in mind.

7. Independent Words.

Interjections.—An *Interjection* is a word used in making sudden exclamations; as, *oh! ah! alas!*

Name the part of speech to which each of the following words belongs:

River, sea, see, men, committee, eat, look (2), armory, arm (2), arms, tiger, leopard, sergeant, we, who, my, mine (3), with, great, kind (2), crowd (2), large, and, or, neither, ah,

centre, how, up, that, nobody, hill, hilly, mountainous, greatest, an, action, charge (2), giant (2), down, whether, wharf, music, musician, musical, musically, now, never, more.

In the following sentences, name the part of speech of each word :

The enemy is upon us. I did not see him. He lifted his hand. He will come when he is called. I have no friends who will help me. How can I help my friend? Who is he? What sort of a man is he? Have you heard the news?

In the following paragraph, name the part of speech of each word :

“ But we pray
That all mankind may make one brotherhood,
And love and serve each other ; that all wars
And feuds die out of nations, whether those
Whom the sun's hot light darkens, or ourselves
Whom he treats fairly, or the northern tribes
Whom ceaseless snows and starry winters blench,
Savage or civilized,—let every race,
Red, black, or white, olive, or tawny-skinned,
Settle in peace and swell the gathering hosts
Of the great Prince of Peace.”



I. THE ARTICLE.

An Article is the word *a*, *an*, or *the* placed before a noun to show whether the noun is used in a definite, or in an indefinite sense.

The Articles are *a* and *the*.

A is the INDEFINITE Article, *the* is the DEFINITE Article.

The Article *a* is written before a consonant sound ; as, *a man*, *a bird*.

The Article *a* is written *an* before a vowel sound ; as, *an eagle*, *an old man*.

O and *u* sometimes have a consonant sound at the beginning of a word ; as, *one, unit*.

H before a vowel is sometimes silent ; as, *hour, honor*.

A or *an* means one, and is used only before the singular number ; as, *a man, an apple*.

The is used before both numbers ; as, *the man, the men*.

Articles are sometimes called *limiting* or *definitive adjectives*. As a limiting word an article modifies the word to which it relates.

Exercises.—Name the appropriate indefinite article to be used before each of the following words :

Ewe, yew, eye, ear, watch, one-eyed man, European, Indian, umbrella, use, end, day, opening, engineer, horse, honest, hiatus, human, humble, onion, orchard, usury, unit, eagle.

Write each of these words in a sentence.

Write the following sentences and fill the blanks with the proper article :

- old man and — boy walked on — highway.
- eagle is — noble bird.
- mills of — gods grind slowly.
- water rushed like — torrent down — hillsides.
- honest man is — noblest work of God.
- Borneo is — island.
- Philadelphia is — city.
- man is known by — company he keeps.

What does each of the articles used in the preceding sentences modify ?



II. THE NOUN.

A **Noun** is the name of any person, place, or thing ; as, *John, school, book*.

Letters and words used technically are to be considered nouns ; as, “*C* is sounded hard before *a, o, u*, etc.” ; “*lb* means pound.” “*Me* is a pronoun.” “*+* is the sign of addition.”

I. CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

Nouns are divided into two general classes, **PROPER** and **COMMON**.

A **Proper noun** is a name given to only one of a class of objects ; as, *John, London, Delaware*.

A Proper noun should always begin with a capital letter.

A **Common noun** is a name given to any one of a class of objects ; as, *boy, city, river*.

Exercises.—Which of the following nouns are Proper, and which Common? Which should begin with a capital letter?

england, colony, holland, empire, america, queen, victoria, illinois, poet, milton, boy, girl, tree, city, philadelphia, baltimore, hudson, wednesday, tuesday, autumn, february, henry, mary, river.

Write each of these nouns in a sentence.

FURTHER CLASSIFICATION.

Some Common nouns are further classified as **COLLECTIVE**, **ABSTRACT**, **VERBAL**, and **DIMINUTIVE**.

A **Collective noun** is the name of a collection of objects considered as one : as, *army, crowd*. A Collective noun is also called a noun of Multitude.

Name other examples of Collective nouns.

An **Abstract noun** is one which denotes the name of a quality apart from the substance to which it belongs ; as, *sweetness, beauty*. Abstract nouns are derived from adjectives.

Name other examples, and state from what adjective derived.

A **Verbal noun** is one derived from a verb ; as, *reading*. It is also called a **PARTICIPIAL** noun.

Name other examples, and state from what verb derived.

A **Diminutive noun** is one derived from another noun, and expressing some object of the same kind but smaller ; as *stream, streamlet ; leaf, leaflet ; hill, hillock ; duck, duckling ; goose, gosling*.

Exercises.—To what kind or class does each of the following common nouns belong?

Islet, spelling, lambkin, hillock, acuteness, loyalty, flock, senate, jury, council, army, herd, class, committee, fighting, swearing, idleness.

Write a list of ten collective nouns; ten abstract nouns; ten verbal nouns; three diminutive nouns; and use each one in a sentence.

Combine two or three of these sentences so as to form a connected statement.

II. ATTRIBUTES OF NOUNS.

Nouns have the attributes of GENDER, NUMBER, PERSON, and CASE.

I. GENDER.

Gender is the distinction of nouns in regard to SEX.

Nouns have three genders, MASCULINE, FEMININE, and NEUTER.

The Masculine Gender denotes objects of THE MALE SEX ; as, *boy, man*,

The Feminine Gender denotes objects of THE FEMALE SEX ; as, *girl, woman*.

The Neuter Gender denotes objects WITHOUT SEX ; as, *book, river*.

Write ten examples of nouns in each of the genders.

Modes of Distinguishing Gender.

There are three ways of distinguishing gender :

1. By the use of different words ; as, *bachelor, maid ; son, daughter*.

2. By difference of termination ; as, *giant, giantess ; editor, editress*.

3. By prefixing or affixing another word ; as, *he-goat, she-goat ; land-lord, land-lady*.

1. By the use of different words.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bachelor	maid	King	queen
Beau	belle	Lad	lass
Boar	sow	Lord	lady
Boy	girl	Male	female
Brother	sister	Man	woman
Buck	doe	Master	miss
Bull	} cow	Mister	Mistress
Bullock		or Mr.	Mrs.
Ox		Milter	spawner
Steer	heifer	Nephew	niece
Cock	hen	Papa	mamma
Colt	filly	Ram	ewe
Dog	bitch	Singer	songstress
Drake	duck	Sir	} madam
Earl	countess	Sire (<i>the king</i>)	
Father	mother	Sire, <i>a horse</i>	dam
Friar	} nun	Sloven	slattern
Monk		Son	daughter
Gander	goose	Stag	hind
Hart	roe	Swain	nymph
Horse	mare	Uncle	aunt
Husband	wife	Wizard	witch.

2. By difference of termination.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Abbot	abbess	Director	directress
Actor	actress	Duke	duchess
Ambassador	ambadress	Editor	editress
Arbiter	arbitress	Elector	electress
Author	authoress	Emperor	empress
Baron	baroness	Enchanter	enchantress
Benefactor	benefactress	Founder	foundress
Caterer	cateress	Giant	giantess
Chanter	chantress	God	goddess
Conductor	conductress	Governor	governess
Count	countess	Heir	heiress
Dauphin	dauphiness	Host	hostess
Deacon	deaconess	Hunter	huntress

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Instructor	instructress	Tiger	tigress
Jew	Jewess	Traitor	traitress
Lion	lioness	Tutor	tutoress
Marquis	marchioness	Tyrant	tyranness
Mayor	mayoress	Viscount	viscountess
Monitor	monitress	Votary	votaress.
Negro	negress		
Patron	patroness		
Peer	peeress	Administrator	administratrix
Poet	poetess	Executor	executrix
Priest	priestess	Heritor	heritrix
Prince	princess	Testator	testatrix
Prior	prioress	Hero	heroine
Prophet	prophetess	Landgrave	landgravine
Protector	protectress	Bridegroom	bride
Shepherd	shepherdess	Widower	widow
Songster	songstress	Czar	czarina
Sorcerer	sorceress	Don	donna
Tailor	tailoress	Sultan	sultana.

3. By prefixing or affixing another word.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Landlord	landlady	Man-servant	maid-servant
Gentleman	gentlewoman	Male-child	female-child
Archduke	archduchess	Peacock	peahen
Schoolmaster	schoolmistress	Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow
He-goat	she-goat	Grandfather	grandmother.

General Remarks on Gender.

1. Some nouns denote objects which may be either male or female; as, *bird*, *parent*. These are said to be of the Common gender.

2. Many masculines have no corresponding feminines; as, *baker*, *brewer*, etc. A few feminines have no corresponding masculines; as, *laundress*, *brunette*, *virago*, etc.

3. In some of the words which have both masculine and feminine terminations, the masculine is ordinarily used to denote both sexes, whenever the office or profession is the idea chiefly intended. When, however, it is the intention of the

sentence to designate the sex of the individual spoken of, the change of termination is to be observed. Thus, "the *poets* of the age" would be correct when speaking of poets of both sexes; but the "best *poetess* of the age" would be used when speaking of female writers only.

4. In speaking of small animals, or of those whose sex is not known, or not regarded, they are often considered as without sex: thus, we say of a *cat* "it is treacherous," of an *infant* "it is beautiful," of a *deer* "it was killed."

5. A Collective noun is neuter when it refers, not to the objects separately, but to the collection as one whole. Thus: The *class* is large; it must be divided.

II. NUMBER.

Number is that attribute of nouns which indicates whether ONE or MORE THAN ONE is meant.

Nouns have two numbers; the SINGULAR and the PLURAL.

The Singular Number denotes ONE, the Plural Number denotes MORE THAN ONE.

Modes of Forming the Plural.

1. Plural in *s*.

Nouns are usually made Plural by adding *s* to the singular; as, *book*, *books*.

Exercise.—Name the plural of house, room, chair, book, bee, bird, dog, cat, pen, pencil, noun, poet, tree, flower, ship.

2. Plural in *es*.

Nouns ending in *ch* soft, *s*, *sh*, *x*, and *z*, are made Plural by adding *es*; as, *church*, *churches*; *miss*, *misses*; *lash*, *lashes*; *box*, *boxes*; *topaz*, *topazes*.

Exercise.—Name the plural of dish, peach, larch, match, latch, dash, lash, kiss, mess, moss, loss, muss, mass, fuss, rush, hiss, wish, sash, fish, quiz, fox, miss, lynx, radish, rhombus.

State the reason in each case.

Write sentences each containing one or more of these nouns.

Nouns ending in *o* differ as to the mode of forming the plural. Some form the plural by adding *es*. Among these are *calico*, *cargo*, *hero*, *motto*, *mulatto*, *negro*, *potato*, *tomato*, *tornado*, *volcano*, etc. Others form the plural by adding simply *s*. Among these are *armadillo*, *cameo*, *canto*, *duodecimo*, *folio*, *halo*, *junto*, *memento*, *octavo*, *piano*, *portico*, *proviso*, *quarto*, *salvo*, *sirocco*, *solo*, *trio*, *tyro*, *virtuoso*, *zero*, etc.

Exercise.—Name the plural of *negro*, *no*, *Cato*, *echo*, *two*, *buffalo*, *bamboo*, *lasso*, *potato*, *trio*, *motto*, *halo*.

Write the singular and plural forms of all these words in sentences.

3. Plural in *ves*.

Most nouns ending in single *f*, or in *fe*, are made Plural by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves*; as, *loaf*, *loaves*; *life*, *lives*.

The following nouns do not change *f* into *ves*, but form the plural according to the general rule, that is, by adding *s* to the singular; *Brief*, *chief*, *dwarf*, *fife*, *grief*, *gulf*, *hoof*, *handkerchief*, *kerchief*, *mischiefs*, *proof*, *reproof*, *roof*, *safe*, *scarf*, *strife*, *surf*, *turf*.

Nouns in double *f* follow the general rule; as, *muff*, *muffs*.

Exception.—*Staff*, a stick, has *staves* in the plural; *staff*, a body of officers, has *staffs*. The compounds of *staff* all have *staffs* in the plural; as, *flagstaffs*, *tipstaffs*, *distaffs*, etc.

Exercise.—Name the plural of *wharf*, *half*, *cuff*, *leaf*, *beef*, *calf*, *thief*, *wife*, *roof*, *life*.

4. Plural in *ies*.

Nouns ending in *y* after a consonant are made Plural by changing *y* into *ies*; as, *lady*, *ladies*.

Nouns ending in *y* after a vowel do not change *y* into *ies*, but form the plural by the general rule; as, *day*, *days*.

Exercise.—Name the plural of *ray*, *toy*, *chimney*, *tray*, *artery*, *Monday*, *February*, *buoy*, *boy*, *attorney*, *valley*, *money*, *whisky*, *whiskey*, *fancy*, *fairy*, *sky*, *penny*.

Write the singular and plural forms of all these words in sentences.

5. Plural in *'s*.

Letters, figures, and other characters, used as nouns, are made plural by adding the apostrophe and *s*; as,

Dot your *i*'s and cross your *t*'s; the + 's should be transposed; three 6's = two 9's.

Write the plural of E, if, O, 3, but.

Plural of Proper Nouns.

Proper nouns, and other parts of speech used as nouns, are made Plural in the same manner as Common nouns of like endings; as, the *Pompeys* and *Ciceros* of the age; the *ins* and *outs* of office.

Write five examples of other parts of speech used as nouns in the plural number.

In words of this kind, ending in *y* after a consonant, the usage is not uniform. Some simply add *s*; as, The *Marys* and *Marthas*; the *whys* and *wherefores*. Some change the *y* into *ies*; as, The two *Sicilies*, the *Alleghanies*, the *five-twenties*.

Nouns Irregular in the Plural.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Man	men	Tooth	teeth
Woman	women	Goose	geese
Child	children	Mouse	mice
Ox	oxen	Louse	lice.
Foot	feet		

Write these words in sentences.

Plurals with Different Significations.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Regular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Irregular.</i>
Brother	brothers (<i>of same family</i>)		brethren (<i>of same society</i>)
Die	dies (<i>for coining</i>)		dice (<i>for gaming</i>)
Genius	geniuses (<i>men of genius</i>)		genii (<i>spirits</i>)
Index	indexes (<i>tables of reference</i>)		indices (<i>signs in algebra</i>)
Penny	pennies	} <i>distinct objects.</i>	pence
Pea	peas		pease
Cow	cows		kine
			} <i>the denomination</i>
			} <i>the kind of animal.</i>

Write both these plural forms in sentences.

Name both plurals of the following, and tell the difference of the meaning: Fish, fruit, head, sail, shot.

Write both forms in sentences.

The compounds of *man* form the plural in the same manner as the simple word; as, *alderman*, *aldermen*.

Care should be taken not to confound compounds of the word *man* with words that accidentally end in those three letters. Thus statesman is really compounded of two words, *states* and *man*; but Turcoman, Mussulman, German, are simple words, like *talisman*, *ottoman* (a kind of seat), and form the plural regularly, thus: *Turcomans*, *Mussulmans*, *Germans*, *talismans*, *ottomans*.

Plural of Compounds.

Compounds consisting of a noun and an adjective connected by a hyphen take the sign of the plural after the noun only; as, *court-martial*, *courts-martial*.

Compounds consisting of two or more words connected by a hyphen are sometimes composed of two nouns, one of which is used in the sense of an adjective, as *man-trap*, in which the word *man* is really an adjective; or of a noun and some combination of words having the force of an adjective, as *father-in-law*, in which the combination *in-law* has the force of an adjective, as much so as the word *legal*. In all these compounds, the sign of the plural is added to that part of the compound which really constitutes the noun; as, *man-traps*, *fathers-in-law*.

The compounds of *full* form the plural regularly; as, *mouthful*, *mouthfuls*; *spoonful*, *spoonfuls*; *bucketful*, *bucketfuls*.

Exercise.—Name the plural of man-of-war, man-eater, drum-major, major-general, sergeant-at-arms, hen-coop, pin-cushion, son-in-law, cart-load, chess-man, dog-cart, mouse-trap, court-martial, pocket-book, boot-jack, piano-forte, Jack-a-lantern, man-servant, Knight Templar.

Write the singular and plural forms of each of these words in sentences.

Plural of Foreign Words.

Words adopted without change from foreign languages usually retain their original plurals. Among these are the following :

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Formula	formulæ	Radius	radii
Nebula	nebulae	Sarcophagus	sarcophagi
Addendum	addenda	Stimulus	stimuli
Arcanum	arcana	Terminus	termini
Datum	data	Amanuensis	amanuenses
Desideratum	desiderata	Analysis	analyses
Effluvium	effluvia	Antithesis	antitheses
Erratum	errata	Axis	axes
Gymnasium	gymnasia	Basis	bases
Stratum	strata	Crisis	crises
Automaton	automata	Ellipsis	ellipses
Criterion	criteria	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Phenomenon	phenomena	Oasis	oases
Alumnus	alumni	Parenthesis	parentheses
Alumna	alumnae	Thesis	theses
Focus	foci	Appendix	appendices
Fungus	fungi	Vertex	vertices.

Select words in the list given above that have the same termination, and give the plurals peculiar to each termination.

Some foreign words are so far domesticated as to have an English plural as well as a foreign one. Among these are the following :

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Foreign Plural.</i>	<i>English Plural.</i>
Cherub	cherubim	cherubs
Seraph	seraphim	seraphs
Memorandum	memoranda	memorandums
Medium	media	mediums
Bandit	banditti	bandits
Stamen	stamina	stamens.

General Remarks on Number.

1. Some nouns are for the most part not used in the plural. Among these are the names of materials, virtues, vices, arts,

sciences, and abstract nouns; as, *gold, goodness, idleness, wisdom, flour, milk, arithmetic, coffee, hope, cream, butter, grammar, flax, music, meat, water.*

Some of these words may be used in the plural. Which? Under what conditions?

2. Some nouns are used only in the plural. Among these are *annals, antipodes, archives, assets, billiards, bitters, cattle, clothes, goods, nuptials, measles, oats, thanks, tidings, victuals, wages, ashes, dregs, eaves, head-quarters, hose*; also the names of things consisting of two parts, as, *bellows, scissors, tongs, pincers, tweezers, trousers, etc.*

3. Some nouns are alike in both numbers. Among these are *swine, deer, sheep, trout, salmon, etc.*; also several foreign words, as, *apparatus, series, species, etc.* The singular of such words may generally be distinguished by the use of the indefinite article *a* or *an*; as, *a series, a deer, a trout, an apparatus, etc.*

4. Many nouns are sometimes alike in both numbers, and at other times have a regular form for the plural. Among these are *head, brace, pair, couple, dozen, score, etc.* Thus we say "He bought *twenty dozen* of them," and "He bought them in dozens."

5. Some nouns are plural in form, but either singular or plural in meaning. Among them are *amends, means, news, riches, etc.*; also the names of certain sciences, as, *conics, optics, ethics, mathematics, etc.*

6. *Means* and *amends* are singular when they refer to only one object, plural when they refer to more than one. The singular *mean* is also used to signify strictly the middle between two extremes. *News* is rarely found with a plural signification. *Riches* has both a singular and a plural signification. *Alms* is strictly singular.

7. A collective noun is singular when it refers to the entire collection as one thing; as, "The army was defeated." A collective noun is plural when it refers to the individuals of the collection; as, "The public are invited to be present."

What is the meaning of the following plural nouns when used only in the plural: Arms, colors, goods, letters, spectacles, vespers, morals.

Write all the nouns given, in sentences.

III. PERSON.

Person is the distinction of nouns in their relation to the speaker.

Nouns have three persons, **FIRST**, **SECOND**, and **THIRD**.

The **First person** is **THE SPEAKER**, The **Second person** is **THE ONE SPOKEN TO**, the **Third person** is **THE ONE SPOKEN OF**.

Exercises.—In the following sentences, tell which words are nouns; state of each whether it is proper or common; and state the gender, number, and person of each.

I, John, saw the holy city, new Jerusalem. Rouse, ye Romans, rouse, ye slaves. I heard a voice, saying unto me, Arise, Peter. We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

IV. CASE.

Case distinguishes the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words in the same sentence.

Nouns have three cases, **NOMINATIVE**, **POSSESSIVE**, and **OBJECTIVE**.

The relation indicated by the case of a noun includes three ideas—*subject*, *object*, and *ownership*. A noun may be to a verb in the relation of its *subject*, or that of which the assertion is made, and then it is in the nominative case; or it may be to a verb or a preposition in the relation of its *object*, or that on which some action or relation terminates, and then it is in the objective case; or it may have to some other noun the relation of *ownership* or *possession*, and then it is in the possessive case.

The **Nominative Case** is that in which a noun is **THE SUBJECT OF A VERB**.

The Possessive Case is that which DENOTES OWNERSHIP OR POSSESSION.

The Objective Case is that in which a noun is THE OBJECT OF SOME VERB OR PREPOSITION.

The Nominative and Objective cases of nouns are alike in form.

How to find the Nominative.—The subject of the verb may be found by putting “who” or “what” before the verb and asking the question. Example: “A man bought a hat.” Who bought? Ans. Man. Therefore, “man” is the subject of the verb “bought,” and is in the nominative case.

How to find the Objective.—The object of a verb or of a preposition may be found by putting “whom” or “what” after the verb or the preposition and asking the question. Examples: “William hurt his sister.” Hurt whom? Ans. Sister. Therefore, “sister” is the object of the verb “hurt.” “William went into the street.” Into what? Ans. Street. Therefore, “street” is the object of the preposition “into.”

Exercises.—Name the subject of each verb in the following sentences; also the object of each verb and preposition:

A lesson in geography was assigned to the whole division.

Idleness in youth brings misery in old age.

Lying leads to other bad habits.

Charles caught a fish in the lake.

Exercise strengthens the body.

The peddler sold oranges, lemons, and bananas.

A wise son maketh a glad father.

Mary read an interesting book.

The vessel was loaded with spices.

We began our journey.

The teacher of the second division assigned to the first section a lesson in geography.

Formation of the Possessive.

The Possessive Singular is formed from the nominative singular, by adding an *apostrophe* and *s*.

The Possessive Plural is formed from the nominative plural, by adding an apostrophe only when the plural ends in *s*, and by adding both the apostrophe and *s* when the plural does not end in *s*.

General Remarks on the Possessive.

1. There was at one time a prevalent notion, which indeed to some extent still prevails, that when the nominative ends in *s* the possessive is formed by adding the apostrophe only. This is true in the plural, but not in the singular. In the possessive singular, both the apostrophe and *s* are added, though the nominative should end in *s*. The best writers at the present day rarely, if ever, omit this additional *s*. Thus, Adams's speeches, Dickens's works, James's books.

2. When the nominative ends in a sound with which the apostrophic *s* cannot combine, the word is pronounced as if *es* were added. Thus, *church's* is pronounced exactly like *churches*. In writing these forms, care should be taken not to be misled by the sound.

3. In like manner, in nouns ending in *y* after a consonant, care should be taken not to confound the possessive singular and the nominative plural, which are pronounced alike, though written differently; as, *lady*, possessive singular *lady's*, nominative plural *ladies*.

4. The import of the possessive may generally be expressed by the preposition *of*; thus, "*man's* wisdom" means "the wisdom *of* *man*." These two forms of expression, however, do not always mean the same. Thus, "the king's picture" may mean a picture *belonging* to the king; but "a picture of the king" means a *portrait* of him.

5. The apostrophe and *s* do not always indicate the possessive case. They are sometimes employed to form the plural of mere letters or characters used as nouns; as, four 3's, ten 6's, etc.; also to form the singular of verbs of a similar character; as, "He *pro's* and *con's*, and weighs the matter o'er."

6. The sign of the possessive case is placed at the end of a compound noun; as, My *father-in-law's* house.

Declension of Nouns.

An arrangement of the different forms of the gender, number, person, or case of a noun or a pronoun is called its **DECLENSION**.

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
Nom.	Poss.	Obj.	Nom.	Poss.	Obj.
Friend	friend's	friend	friends	friends'	friends
Man	man's	man	m'en	men's	men
Church	church's	church	churches	churches'	churches
Lady	lady's	lady	ladies	ladies'	ladies
Jones	Jones's	Jones	Joneses	Joneses'	Joneses.

Exercises in Declension.—Decline *fox, farmer, Benjamin, James, city, attorney, lass, miss.*

Write the possessive case, singular, of *Agnes, Robert Morris, Roger Williams, Martin Van Buren, John Quincy Adams, maid-of-all-work.*

Write the possessive case, singular and plural, of *baby, colony, landlady, dray, calf, mulatto, ox, ox-cart, mouse.*

Write the singular and plural forms of each of these words in sentences.

Correct the following expressions :

Lazarus' son ; The 9s were cast out ; There are two ks in kick ; James' lesson is hard.

Name all the Nouns and Articles in the following sentences.
Name the gender, number, person, and case of each noun.
Name each verb and give its subject :

Straws show the way the wind blows.

They travelled along the road.

The way was rough, the wind was cold.

Westward the march of empire takes its way.

A man's manners often make his fortune.

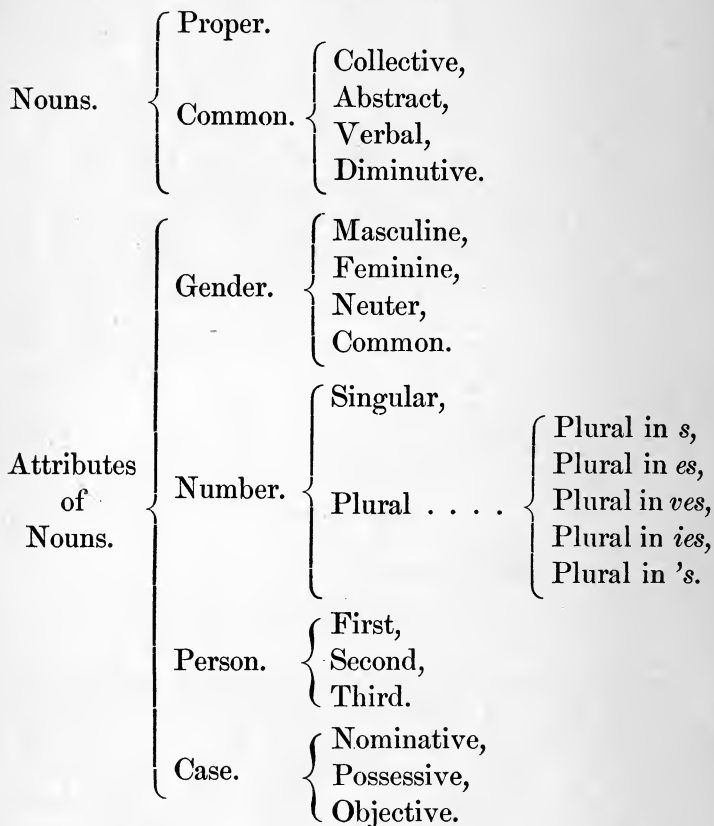
Vice stings us in our pleasures ; Virtue consoles us in our pains.

In a great emergency, Grace Darling helped her father to row a boat during a dreadful storm, and by this means, in the hands of Providence, she prevented sorrow in many mothers' hearts.

TOPICAL OUTLINE.



THE NOUN.



Declension.



QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Of what does Etymology treat? What is meant by the inflection of words? How many classes of words are there? Name the different parts of speech.

What is an Article? Classify them. When is *a* written *an*?

Which of the articles is written before the plural number? Justify the use of *an* before *onion*, and *a* before *union*.

What is a noun? What is a proper noun? How written? What is a common noun? Define collective noun. Abstract noun. What are the attributes of a noun? What conditions give rise to these attributes? Define gender. How do we distinguish the gender of nouns? When is a noun said to be of the common gender?

What is number? How many? What is the general rule for forming the plural? What nouns form the plural in *es*, *ves*, *ies*, *'s*? What exceptions to these rules? Name some irregular plurals. Name some nouns that have two plurals. Of what are compound nouns composed? How do you write their plurals? What is person? How many?

What is case? How many? Define each. How is the possessive singular formed? The possessive plural? How do you form the possessive case of compound nouns? Do the apostrophe and *s* ever indicate the plural?

Write a composition on Nouns, using the Topical Outline as a basis for the work.



III. THE ADJECTIVE.

An Adjective is a word used to modify a Noun or a Pronoun; as, *A green tree*, *A wise man*, *Brave soldiers*, *She is studious*.

1. Nouns become adjectives when they are used to express some quality of another noun; as, *gold ring*, *sea water*, *Alaska gold*, a *cherry box*, a *farewell* address.

2. Adjectives are sometimes used as nouns, and admit of number and case; as, our *superiors*, his *betters*, by *fifties*, for *twenty's* sake.

3. Adjectives preceded by the definite article are often used as nouns; as, "*The little* that was known of him." When the expression refers to persons, the adjective is always considered plural; as, *the good*," meaning good men.

Write five other adjectives, and use them in sentences.

Write an adjective before each of the following nouns :

Farmer, cloud, sheep, school, scholar, rider, horse, Turks.

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the preceding nouns, with an appropriate adjective.

I. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives which express number are called **Numerals**.

Numeral Adjectives are of three kinds, **CARDINAL**, **ORDINAL**, and **MULTIPLICATIVE**.

The **Cardinal Adjectives** denote the number or quantity ; as, *one, two, three, four*.

The **Ordinal Adjectives** denote the order or arrangement ; as, *first, second, third, fourth*.

The **Multiplicatives** denote how many times ; as, *single, double, triple*.

There are also various compound adjectives into which the numerals enter ; as, *one-leaved, two-fold*.

Write three sentences, each containing a cardinal adjective ; three, each containing an ordinal adjective ; three, each containing a multiplicative adjective.

II. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives are varied by **COMPARISON**.

The degrees of Comparison are three, **POSITIVE**, **COMPARATIVE**, and **SUPERLATIVE**.

The **Positive Degree** expresses the quality ; as, *small, wise, a young horse, a green field*.

The **Comparative Degree** expresses the quality in a higher or lower degree ; as, *smaller, wiser, a softer silk, a fiercer animal, a better result*.

The **Superlative Degree** expresses the quality in the highest or lowest degree ; as, *smallest, wisest, the largest*

fish, the *sweetest* music, the *best* record, the *most* honored name.

Regular Comparison.

The Comparative is formed by adding *er*, and the Superlative by adding *est*, to the Positive ; as, *great*, *greater*, *greatest*.

Adjectives of more than one syllable are usually compared by prefixing to the Positive the words *more* and *most*, *less* and *least* ; as, *numerous*, *more numerous*, *most numerous* ; *less numerous*, *least numerous*.

1. *More* and *most*, *less* and *least*, when connected with adjectives, may be considered as adverbs modifying the adjective ; or the adverb and the adjective may be taken together as the comparative or superlative form of the adjective.

2. Some adjectives form the superlative by adding *most* to the end of the word ; as, *upper*, *uppermost*.

Dissyllables ending in *y* or *e* are usually compared by adding *er* and *est* ; as, *happy*, *happier*, *happiest* ; *able*, *abler*, *ablest*.

Write five examples of adjectives used in the positive degree.

Write these adjectives in the comparative and in the superlative degrees.

Write five sentences, each containing one of these adjectives.

Irregular Comparison.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good	better	best
Bad, evil, ill	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Much, many	more	most
Far	{ farther further	{ farthest furthest.

Write five sentences, each containing an adjective of irregular comparison.

Superlatives with Different Meanings.

Near	nearer	nearest	(in place)	next	} in order.
Late	later	latest	(in time)	last	
Fore	former	foremost	(in place)	first	

1. *Prior, superior, ulterior, exterior, inferior*, etc., involve the idea of comparison, like the words *previous, preferable*, and many others, but they are not considered as comparatives and are not followed by *than*, as English comparatives usually are.

2. The termination *ish* makes what is sometimes called a subpositive; as, *bluish, blackish*.

Some of the ideas expressed by adjectives are fixed and absolute. That is, they refer to things not capable of increase or diminution. Among these may be reckoned those which denote some definite number, shape, or position; as, *two, three, second, third, circular, triangular, perpendicular*; also those which express the substance of which anything is made, as *golden, flaxen*; also many such words as *whole, universal, supreme*. All such adjectives are incapable of being compared.

Exercises in Comparison.—Compare *unlucky, lucky, benevolent, shady, sad, active, abusive, noisy, lazy, gay, fine, irregular, harmonious, juicy, ill-natured, thoughtless, beautiful, large, red, square, eligible, dead, equal, right*.

Give the superlative of *hind, inner, outer, top*.

An adjective which merely limits is sometimes called a *definitive* or *limiting* adjective; as, “*This book*,” “*That boy*.”

An Adjective pronoun or Pronominal adjective is a definitive adjective which may be used as a pronoun. The adjective pronouns are: *Each, every, either, neither, this, that, yonder, some, one, any, other, such, whole*.

Write each of the adjective pronouns in a sentence, with and without a noun. What word does the adjective modify in each of the sentences you have written?

Name the Nouns, Articles, and Adjectives in the following sentences. Name the gender, number, person, and case of each of the nouns. What does each of the adjectives and articles modify? Name the degree of the adjectives used. Name the verb and its subject:

The wicked often put off repentance to the eleventh hour.

The exterior of the stone wall was perpendicular. It had a thickness of two feet at the top, and was still thicker at the bottom.

We should not consider our inferiors contemptible, for though they may be our inferiors in rank, they are perhaps our superiors in virtue.

Rain water is less pleasant to the taste than river or spring water is. Though the former may contain less foreign matter, the latter is more acceptable to the thirsty.

TOPICAL OUTLINE.

THE ADJECTIVE.

Descriptive—Definitive.

Numeral. { Cardinal,
Ordinal,
Multiplicative.

Comparison. { Positive,
Comparative,
Superlative.

Irregular.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What is an adjective? When called descriptive? When called definitive or limiting? What is the office of the adjective? Into what two classes divided? What is a numeral adjective? Name the three classes. What does each denote? When do adjectives become nouns? When do nouns become adjectives? Give an example of a compound adjective. Why so called?

How are adjectives varied? Name the degrees of comparison. What does each express? Illustrate. How are the degrees formed? When do we prefix words to form these degrees? What exception? What is meant by an irregular comparison? Illustrate. Give another method of forming the superlative. Justify the use of *nearest* and *next* as superlatives. Is *superior* a comparative? Why? Compare *dead*, *square*, *right*. Why? What is a definitive or limiting adjective? What do adjectives modify? What is an adjective pronoun, or pronominal adjective?

Write a composition on Adjectives, using the Topical Outline as a basis.



IV. THE PRONOUN.

A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun; as, "The man is happy because *he* is benevolent."

Pronouns are divided into three classes: PERSONAL, RELATIVE, and ADJECTIVE.

The leading or prominent idea gives name to each class of pronouns. The leading idea in the Personal pronoun is the distinction of person; in the Relative pronoun it is the relation to an antecedent; in the Adjective pronoun it is the relation to some noun in the manner of an adjective.

Personal and Relative Pronouns have Gender, Number, Person, and Case. Adjective Pronouns have Number only.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The Personal Pronouns are *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*; and their plurals, *we*, *you*, *they*.

Personal Pronouns are so called because they denote persons by themselves, without reference to any other word.

Declension of the Personal Pronouns.

FIRST PERSON—Masc. or Fem.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>I</i>	Nom.	<i>we</i>
Poss.	<i>my, or mine</i>	Poss.	<i>our, or ours</i>
Obj.	<i>me</i>	Obj.	<i>us.</i>

SECOND PERSON—Masc. or Fem.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>thou</i>	Nom.	<i>you</i>
Poss.	<i>thy, or thine</i>	Poss.	<i>your, or yours</i>
Obj.	<i>thee</i>	Obj.	<i>you.</i>

THIRD PERSON—Masculine.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>he</i>	Nom.	<i>they</i>
Poss.	<i>his</i>	Poss.	<i>their, or theirs</i>
Obj.	<i>him</i>	Obj.	<i>them.</i>

THIRD PERSON—Feminine.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>she</i>	Nom.	<i>they</i>
Poss.	<i>her, or hers</i>	Poss.	<i>their, or theirs</i>
Obj.	<i>her</i>	Obj.	<i>them.</i>

THIRD PERSON—Neuter.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>it</i>	Nom.	<i>they</i>
Poss.	<i>its</i>	Poss.	<i>their, or theirs</i>
Obj.	<i>it</i>	Obj.	<i>them.</i>

Remarks on the Personal Pronouns.

1. In the first person, the plural *we* is often used for the singular *I*, by Editors, Reviewers, Governors, etc.

2. In the second person, the plural is generally used for the singular. Thus, *you* is used for *thou*, *your* or *yours* for *thy* or *thine*, and *you* for *thee*. In prayers to God, however, and on other solemn occasions, we use the singular form, *thou*, *thy* or *thine*, *thee*.

3. Where a plural pronoun is thus used, while only one person is meant, the verb as well as the pronoun must be plural. Thus: *we are*, not *we is*; *you were*, not *you was*.

4. The second person plural had originally *ye* in the nominative and *you* in the objective. The form *ye*, however, has now become obsolete in prose, but is sometimes used in poetry.

5. The Possessives should never be written with an apostrophe, *her's*, *it's*, *our's*, *your's*, *their's*, but always thus: *hers*, *its*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*.

6. The adjective *own* is frequently found connected with the possessive case of the personal pronoun, in order to make the possessive emphatic; thus, "It is your *own* fault."

7. The pronoun *it* is sometimes used indefinitely or without reference to any particular word; as, *it* rains, *it* snows, *it* is one o'clock, *it* is I, *it* is a plain statement.

Compound Personal Pronouns.

The Compound Personal Pronouns are *myself*, *thysself*, *himself*, *herself*, and *itself*, with their plurals, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves*.

In the Compound Personal Pronouns, the nominative and objective cases are alike, and the possessive is wanting.

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the personal and compound personal pronouns.

In the following sentences, name the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and articles. Name the class, properties, and use of each. State what each article and each adjective modifies. To what noun does each pronoun refer? In what case is each pronoun? Name the verbs in each sentence, and name the subject of each.

Exercises.—William lost his brother's new book.

When John was at school, he wrote a letter to his father.

The wind, when it blows upon my body, making it shiver, tells me that I am mortal, though some persons would only complain that they were obliged to bear its buffetings.

The Queen of Sheba retired from Solomon's presence convinced that his wisdom was greater than any account that had been given to her of it would have led her to infer.

We, the people, watch with jealousy those who are our

rulers, that they may not infringe upon our rights, and that the liberties which we possess may be secured to our children when they succeed us.

II. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

The Relative Pronouns are, *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*.

The Relative Pronouns are so called because they relate to some word going before, called the antecedent ; as, "The boy *who* wishes to be learned must be studious."

Who is used in speaking of persons ; as, "The gentleman *who* called was denied admission," "The lady *who* called was my mother."

Which is used in speaking of inferior animals, or of things without life ; as, "The horse *which* was bought by my uncle is a beautiful animal," "The book *which* was given to me is very valuable.

Which is often used as an adjective pronoun ; as, "*Which* things are an allegory."

What, as a relative, takes the place of *which* whenever the antecedent is omitted, and is equivalent to *the thing which*, or *the things which*, hence, may be either singular or plural.

"This is the thing *which* I wanted." If we omit the antecedent, *which* must be changed to *what*. "This is *what* I wanted."

What always refers to things without life, and therefore is always neuter. It may be either singular or plural. "What [the thing which] appears to be a fault is only a virtue in disguise." "What [the things which] appear to be faults are only virtues in disguise."

What is often used as an adjective pronoun ; as, "We lost *what* books we had."

That, as a relative, takes the place of either *who* or *which*.

That is used in speaking either of persons or of things, and is used in both numbers; as, "The best *boy that* lives," "The *book that* was lost," "The best *boys that* live," "The *books that* were lost."

The word *that* is used in three senses. 1. Sometimes it has the meaning of *who* or *which*; as, "The best boy *that* lives;" and then it is a Relative Pronoun. 2. Sometimes it points out a noun; as, *that* boy; and then it is an Adjective Pronoun. 3. Sometimes it shows the dependence of one verb upon another; as, "He wished *that* he had done it;" and then it is a Conjunction.

What and *that* are indeclinable.

Who and *which* are alike in both numbers, and are thus declined :

<i>Sing. and Plur.</i>		<i>Sing. and Plur.</i>	
Nom.	<i>who</i>	Nom.	<i>which</i>
Poss.	<i>whose</i>	Poss.	<i>whose</i>
Obj.	<i>whom</i>	Obj.	<i>which.</i>

A Relative Pronoun is always of the same gender, number, and person as its antecedent.

The relative pronoun acts as a connective, and introduces into the body of a sentence an additional statement. This statement is called a Clause, and in its use or office it is either an adjective or a noun; as, "The money *which was lost* has been found" (Adjective clause). "He lost *what I gave him*" (Noun clause).

Name the relative in the following sentences. Name the clause and state its use.

Do you know who has arrived?

I believe that he will answer my letter.

The earth, on which we live, is a planet.

I forgot the message which you gave me.

The ship which brought the goods was called "Juno."

Who that loves his country would ever consent to act so?

The hope that is unreasonable is sometimes the hardest to remove.

Who ask and reason thus, can scarce conceive
God gives enough when He has more to give.

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the relative pronouns.

Compound Relatives.

The Compound Relative Pronouns are *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*.

The Compound Relative Pronouns are formed by adding *ever* and *soever* to the relatives *who*, *which*, and *what*.

These Compounds are sometimes separated by an intervening noun; as, "Into *whose* house *soever* ye enter."

Whosoever is regularly declined like *who*; thus,

Sing. and Plur.

Nom. *whosoever*

Poss. *whosoever's*

Obj. *whomsoever*.

The other Compound Relatives are indeclinable.

Whichever, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever* are also used as adjective pronouns; as, "*Whichever* side you choose, you are sure to win."

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the compound relatives.

Interrogatives and Responsives.

In *asking* questions, *who*, *which*, and *what* are called *Interrogatives*.

In *answering* questions, *who*, *which*, and *what* are called *Responsives*.

As Interrogatives, *who*, *which*, and *what* have no *antecedent*, but relate to a word *subsequent*, contained in the answer. Thus, "*Who* did it? *John*."

As responsives, *who*, *which*, and *what* seem to relate to no word, either *antecedent* or *subsequent*. Thus, in the response, "I do not know *who* wrote it," supplying an antecedent changes the meaning. "I do not know *the person* who wrote

it," means, I am not *acquainted* with him, which is quite a different idea.

Which and *what*, when used as Interrogatives, or Responsives, or when joined with *ever* and *soever*, apply to *persons* as well as things; as, *Which* of them did it? John. *What* is he? A lawyer.

The Responsive used in answering a question must be the same as the one used in asking it; thus, *Who* wrote the book? I do not know *who* wrote it. *Which* of the gentlemen was it? I do not know *which* of them it was. *What* is he? I do not know *what* he is.

In asking about persons, *who* inquires for the *name*; as "*Who* wrote the book? Mr. Webster;" *which* asks for the particular *individual*, where there are several persons of the same name; as, "*Which* of the Websters wrote it? Noah Webster;" *what* asks for the person's *character* or *occupation*; as, "*What* was Mr. Webster? A lexicographer."

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the Interrogatives and the Responsives.

Exercises.—In the following sentences, name the nouns, pronouns, articles, and adjectives used. Name the class, properties, and use of each.

Give a reason for your answer in each case.

What does each article and adjective modify?

To what word does each pronoun relate?

Name each verb and its subject:

John, who was at school, wrote a letter to his father.

What happened to you and your sister on your way to school?

By what slow degrees the little acorn becomes the mighty oak!

In the haste and confusion, I could not see by whom he was struck.

Whatever skill I have in composition is due to the manner in which I was trained.

He who knows what is good and chooses it, who knows what is bad and avoids it, is learned and temperate.

In this country in which we live, every one that is a citizen can enjoy what in other countries is enjoyed by only a favored few. The President whom we have just chosen to rule over us

is a living example of what the poorest man may achieve. Whoever has the ability to rise, is in no way checked by a government which affords equal protection to all.

III. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

The Adjective Pronouns are so called because they modify or limit a noun in the manner of an adjective; they are frequently called Pronominal Adjectives.

The Adjective Pronouns are subdivided into three kinds or classes: Distributive, Demonstrative, and Indefinite.

I. DISTRIBUTIVES.

The Distributive Adjective Pronouns are *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*.

The Distributive Adjective Pronouns are so called because they refer separately and singly to each person or thing of a number of persons or things. The Distributive Adjective Pronouns, therefore, are all in the singular number.

Each is used when speaking of two or more; as, "*Each* of you must go directly home." This will be correct whether it is addressed to two persons, or to more than two.

Every is never used except when speaking of more than two; as, "*Every* one of you must go directly home." This would not be correct if addressed to only two persons.

Each and *every* mean all that make up the number, although taken separately.

Either means one or the other, but not both. It is used, therefore, when speaking of but two persons or things.

Neither means not either.

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the distributive adjective pronouns.

In what number is each of the pronouns in these sentences? Why?

II. DEMONSTRATIVES.

The Demonstrative Adjective Pronouns are *this* and *that*, with their plurals, *these* and *those*.

The Demonstrative Adjective Pronouns are so called because they point out in a definite manner the objects to which they relate; as, "*This* boy recited well, but *that* boy did not." "*These* men are officers, but *those* men are privates."

The Demonstratives *this* and *these*, are applied to near objects; *that* and *those* to objects that are distant.

In contrast, *that* refers to the first mentioned, *this* to the last; as, "Wealth and poverty are both temptations; *that* [wealth] tends to excite pride, *this* [poverty] to discontent."

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the demonstrative adjective pronouns.

In what number is each of the pronouns in these sentences? Why?

III. INDEFINITES.

The Indefinite Adjective Pronouns are *any*, *all*, *such*, *whole*, *some*, *both*, *one*, *none*, *other*, *another*.

The Indefinite Adjective Pronouns are so called because they point out the objects to which they relate in an indefinite manner.

One, *other*, *another* are sometimes used as nouns. When thus used, they are declined. Thus:

Sing. { Nom. One
 { Poss. One's
 { Obj. One

Plur. { Nom. Ones
 { Poss. Ones'
 { Obj. Ones.

Sing. { Nom. Other
 { Poss. Other's
 { Obj. Other

Plur. { Nom. Others
 { Poss. Others'
 { Obj. Others.

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the indefinite adjective pronouns.

In what number is each of the pronouns in these sentences? Why?

Exercises.—In the following paragraph, name the nouns, pronouns, articles, and adjectives used. Name the class, properties, and use of each. Give a reason for your answer in each case. What does each article and each adjective modify? To what does each pronoun refer? Name each verb and its subject:

That class of society in which only those who are wealthy are members, and in which each individual possesses no other merit, may be respected, but it has not the highest claims to respectability. All wise and good men, of any class, or of whatever rank, or of either of the two grades which the world has made,—the rich and the poor,—are worthy of respect. Such men receive the respect of all.

TOPICAL OUTLINE.

THE PRONOUN.

Personal Pronouns.	{ Simple, Compound. }		
Relative Pronouns.	{ Simple, Compound, Interrogative, Responsive. }	Declension by . . .	{ Gender, Number, Person, Case. }
Adjective Pronouns.	{ Distributive, Demonstrative, Indefinite. }	Declension by Number.	

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What is a pronoun? Why so called? Into what classes divided? Why so called? What attributes does each of these classes have? Name the personal pronouns. Give the gender, number, person, and case of *my*, *thee*, *you*, *us*, *he*, *her*, *them*, and *it*. When is a plural pronoun used for a singular noun? What are compound personal pronouns? Name them. Name the relative pronouns. When is *who* used? *which*? *what*? *that*? Name the compound relatives. Why so called? Name the interrogative pronouns. The responsives. Why so called? As interrogative what does *who* ask for? *which*? *what*? Name the subdivisions of the adjective pronouns. Why so called? Name the pronouns belonging to each subdivision.

Write a composition on Pronouns, using the Topical Outline as a basis.

V. THE VERB.

A Verb is a word used to assert or affirm ; as, "John *strikes* the table." "Mary *studies* her lesson."

What words in the following sentences are subjects?

The dog runs. The child sleeps. The horse was driven by a boy.

What words assert or affirm something of the subjects?

What are these words called?

I. ATTRIBUTES OF VERBS.

Verbs have the attributes of VOICE, MOOD, TENSE, NUMBER, and PERSON.

Certain parts of the verb are called PARTICIPLES.

I. VOICE.

Voice is that attribute of the verb which denotes whether the subject of the verb *acts*, or *is acted upon*.

Verbs have two voices, the Active and the Passive.

The Active Voice is that form of the verb which denotes that the subject acts, or does the thing mentioned ; as, "John *strikes* the table." "The teacher *explained* the lesson." "We *expect* a pleasant day."

The Passive Voice is that form of the verb which denotes that the subject is acted upon ; as, "The table *is struck* by John." "The lesson *was explained* by the teacher," "A pleasant day *is expected* by us."

In what voice is the verb in each of the following sentences?

We have studied our lessons.

The sergeant drilled the soldiers.

Poverty and distress follow a civil war.

The soldiers were drilled by the sergeant.

Good nature beautifies all objects.

She sung a solo.

Harry went into the garden.

He entered the house.

The temple of Solomon was destroyed by the Roman soldiers.

The man on the lookout discovered land.

The hope of the righteous will not fail.

The birds flew over the house.

The rewards which your uncle promised you will be given to you by your mother.

Change the voice of the verb, where possible, in each of the preceding examples, and write the sentence with the verb so changed.

Name other examples of verbs in the active voice. In the passive voice.

II. MOOD.

Mood, or **mode**, is that attribute of the verb which denotes the manner or way in which the assertion is expressed.

Verbs have five Moods, the Indicative, the Subjunctive, the Potential, the Imperative, and the Infinitive.

It is the office of the verb to assert or affirm something. If this assertion or affirmation is limited to some subject or nominative, the verb is said to be *finite*. The assertion may be connected with the subject in four different ways, giving rise to the four finite modes or moods. 1. The assertion may be expressed directly and without limitation, and then it is in the Indicative mood; as, "The boy sleeps." 2. It may be expressed as a supposition, and then it is in the Subjunctive mood; as, "If I were you, I would not go." 3. It may be expressed as a possibility, and then it is in the Potential mood; as, "The boy may go." 4. It may be expressed as a command, and then it is in the Imperative mood; as, "Come, boy." Sometimes the assertion is not limited to any particular subject, and then it is said to be in the Infinitive, that is, the *unlimited* mood; as, "To sleep."

The Indicative Mood is that form of the verb in which the assertion is expressed directly and without limitation ; as, *He writes, Horses run, The dog barks.*

The Indicative mood is also used in asking direct questions ; as, *Does the sun shine? Does my mother love me?* This is sometimes called the Interrogative form.

The Subjunctive Mood is that form of the verb in which the assertion is expressed as a supposition, a wish, or a future contingency ; as, *If it rain this afternoon, you must not go. Though he fall, he shall not be utterly cast down. I would I were a boy again.*

How does the Subjunctive form of the verb differ from the Indicative form ?

The Subjunctive mood is usually preceded by a conjunction, such as *if, though, although, unless, except, whether, lest.*

Sometimes, in the Past Tense, by transposing the words, and placing the verb or a part of it before the subject, the verb becomes Subjunctive without the use of a preceding conjunction. Thus : *"Were I sure of the fact I would consent."*

The Subjunctive mood is always accompanied by another verb in some other mood. Without this it cannot make complete sense. Thus : *"If he write carefully, he will succeed."*

The Potential Mood is that form of the verb which expresses possibility, liberty, power, willingness, or obligation ; as, *he can write ; he may write ; he must write ; you could write ; I should go ; she would go.*

The Potential mood is also used in asking questions ; as, *May I write? Must I write?* etc.

The Imperative Mood is that form of the verb which is used to command, exhort, entreat, or permit ; as, *Write the copy according to the directions ; Father, forgive us ; Go, if you desire it ; Come, and listen to the music.*

The Infinitive Mood is that form of the verb which is not limited to a subject, or which has no subject ; as, *To write ; to have written ; to speak ; to be loved ; to have been loved.*

Name the voice and mood of each of the verbs in the following sentences.

The prisoner reached as far as his chain would allow.

Let me go, that I may see my father before he dies.

The moon is hidden by thick clouds.

Cultivate peace with all men.

Secrets confided to you should not be revealed.

Though he slay me, yet will I trust him.

If there be anything improper in my language, I will be much pleased if you will correct it.

III. TENSE.

Tense is that attribute of a verb by which it expresses distinctions of TIME.

There are six Tenses, the Present, the Past, the Future, the Present-Perfect, the Past-Perfect, and the Future-Perfect.

The Present, Past, and Future are called Primary Tenses ; the Present-Perfect, Past-Perfect, and Future-Perfect are called Secondary Tenses.

The Present Tense is that form of the verb which denotes simply present time ; as, *I write ; The grass grows.*

The present tense often expresses what is habitual, universal, or permanent ; as, "The sun gives light by day, the moon by night ;" "Charity thinketh no evil."

When preceded by certain conjunctions, such as *when, after, as soon as*, the Present Tense sometimes conveys the idea of that which is yet future ; as, "He will go as soon as he is ready."

The Past Tense is that form of the verb which de-

notes simply past time ; as, I *wrote* ; He *arrived* yesterday.

This Tense was formerly called the Imperfect Tense.

The Future Tense is that form of the verb which denotes simply future time ; as, I *shall write* ; I *will go* home.

The Present-Perfect Tense is that form of the verb which denotes what is past and finished, but which is connected also with the present time ; as, I *have written* a letter this week.

The Present-Perfect expresses what continues to the present time in its consequences, although we know that the period of the action was completed long ago ; as, "Cicero has written orations." We cannot in like manner say, "Cicero has written poems." His poems are lost, his orations still exist. Cicero, *the poet*, perished long since, but Cicero, *the orator*, is still extant, and may be conceived as existing and acting in a period extending down to the present moment. For the same reason, we cannot say, "The Druids have claimed great powers," for they were long since extinct, and they have left no writing or other instrument in which such claim can be conceived as now set forth. We may, however, say, "Mahomet has claimed great powers," for the claim still exists in the Koran. An author is universally considered as living while his writings live. Hence he may be considered as having done a thing in a period of time not yet expired.

When preceded by certain conjunctions, such as *when*, *after*, *as soon as*, the Present-Perfect Tense, like the Present often denotes something yet to come ; as, "When I have finished my letter, I will attend to your request."

The Past-Perfect Tense is that form of the verb which denotes what was past and finished before some other event which is also past ; as, I *had written* the letter before it was called for.

The Future-Perfect Tense is that form of the verb

which denotes a future time prior to some other time which is itself future ; as, I *shall have written* the letter before it will be called for.

Name the tense of each of the verbs contained in the following sentences :

I have many friends.

He is strong in hope.

John was hopeful of the result.

We have studied our lessons to-day.

Will you read so that you can be heard ?

Washington determined to attack the enemy.

Though he was rich, yet for our sakes he became poor.

Rainy and cold as it was, we were compelled to go out.

James should have answered when his name was called.

He had reached this decision after he came to the place.

I shall have studied my lesson before you are prepared to go out.

In what voice and mood is each verb given ?

Write sentences each containing one or more of the following verbs :

Speak, hear, bring, obey, praise, blame, whistle, rejoice, deceive, betray, sleep, go, play, retire, listen.

Remarks on the Moods and Tenses.

1. The Number of the Tenses in the Different Moods.

—The Indicative Mood has all six of the tenses ; the Subjunctive has two, the Present and the Past ; the Potential has four, the Present, the Past, the Present-Perfect, and the Past-Perfect ; the Imperative has only the Present ; and the Infinitive has the Present and the Present-Perfect.

2. The Tense, Person, and Number of the Imperative Mood.—A command, an exhortation, or an entreaty, is necessarily a present act. The Imperative mood, therefore, is always in the Present Tense. The command, exhortation, or entreaty, being spoken to some party, is necessarily in the Second Person. It is Singular or Plural according to cir-

cumstances, as its subject is usually either *thou*, or *you*, understood. Thus, "Sit still," if addressed to one person, is Singular, and means, "Sit *thou* still;" if addressed to more than one, it is Plural, and means, "Sit *you* still." Whether the subject of the Imperative mood is *thou* understood, or *you*, must be learned, in each particular case, from other words in the sentence. "Brethren, pray for us." Here, the word "brethren" shows that more than one are addressed. Therefore, the verb is plural, and its subject is "you" understood. "Father, forgive them." Here, the word "Father" shows that only one is addressed. The verb, therefore, is singular, and its subject is "thou" understood.

Peculiar Use of the Verbs To Have and To Be.—There is a peculiar usage of *to have* and *to be* that needs to be noted. *Were* is often used with a potential meaning, or in the sense of *would be*; thus, "I *were* an idiot thus to speak," that is, "I *would be* an idiot thus to speak." In like manner, *had* is used in the sense of *would have*; thus, "It *had* been good for that man if he had never been born," that is, "It *would have* been good."

There is another use of *had* still more remarkable. It is where *had* bears the meaning simply of *would*; as, "I *had* as lief not be, as live to be."

IV. PARTICIPLES.

A Participle is that form of the verb which partakes of the nature both of a verb and of an adjective.

The Participles are three, the Present, the Past or Perfect, and the Compound-Perfect.

The Present Participle denotes that which is now in progress; as, *going, being, living, working*. The Present participles all end in *ing*.

The Past or Perfect Participle denotes that which is complete or finished; as, *written, stolen, added*. It ends in *ed*, or has an irregular form, as shown in the list of irregular verbs.

The Compound-Perfect Participle denotes that

which is finished before something else mentioned ; as, *having written, having stolen, having added.*

The Past participle is extensively used in making the compound forms of the active voice.

In the following examples, name the participle, tell the kind, and how it is used :

The bells are ringing.

She sat near him, writing a letter.

Stones came rattling from the cliff.

Mary, being disgusted, retired from the room.

A cunning fox, prowling around a farmyard, saw some chickens scratching vigorously for the grain hidden among the chaff.

Having concealed his valuables, he came from his hiding place and, approaching the visitors, desired to know their mission. They, surprised at his appearance, and becoming alarmed, left him standing in the road.

V. NUMBER AND PERSON.

Verbs have variations of form, to correspond with the number and person of their subject. These variations are called the Numbers and Persons of the verb.

Verbs have two numbers, Singular and Plural ; and three Persons, First, Second, and Third. Thus :

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>	
<i>First Person.</i>	I am.		<i>First Person.</i>	We are.
<i>Second Person.</i>	Thou art.		<i>Second Person.</i>	You are.
<i>Third Person.</i>	He is.		<i>Third Person.</i>	They are.

II. CLASSES OF VERBS.

Verbs are divided into the following classes : TRANSITIVE, INTRANSITIVE ; REGULAR, IRREGULAR ; DEFECTIVE and AUXILIARY.

I. TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE.

A Transitive Verb is one which requires an objective case to complete the meaning ; as, James *writes* a letter.

An Intransitive Verb is one which does not require an objective case to complete the meaning ; as, John *sleeps*.

Explanation.—In the sentences, “James touched *Peter*,” “James touched *him*,” if the object is left out, and we say simply “James touched,” the meaning is incomplete.

Remarks on Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.

1. Some verbs are used both transitively and intransitively ; as, “He reads well,” “He reads a book.”

2. Intransitive verbs are not used in the Passive Voice : thus, we may say *to laugh*, but not *to be laughed*.

3. When verbs usually intransitive are followed by certain prepositions, the verb and preposition sometimes form a kind of compound verb, which is transitive, and admits of a passive voice : thus, we say *to laugh at* a person (Active) ; *to be laughed at* by him (Passive).

4. Verbs usually intransitive sometimes take after them an objective of kindred signification. In that case they are transitive, and admit of a passive voice ; as, “I run a race,” “A race is run.”

5. Transitive verbs in English are sometimes used without an objective case, in a sense between the active and passive voices ; as, “The apple tastes sweet.”

In the following sentences, state which verbs are transitive and which are intransitive :

The fire burns.

Bees make honey.

The eagle screams.

Foxes eat chickens.

James caught a fish.

Roses bloom in June.

The boy raked the field.

Thou shalt not destroy life.

The eagle eats small animals.

Iron is found in Pennsylvania.

Tall oaks grow from little acorns.

The hunter found the crow's nest and destroyed it.

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the following verbs in the active voice :

Lead, know, see, fear, pursue, punish, contemplate, desire, build, scare.

Change the verbs in the sentences you have written to the passive form.

II. REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS.

A **Regular Verb** is one that forms its Past Tense and Past Participle by the addition of *ed* to its present tense ; as, Present, *love* ; Past, *loved* ; Past Participle, *loved*.

An **Irregular Verb** is one that does not form its Past Tense and Past Participle by the addition of *ed* to its present tense ; as, Present, *write* ; Past, *wrote* ; Past Participle, *written*.

The Irregular Verbs.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Abide,	abode,	abode.
Am—Is,	was,	been.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Awake,	awoke, awaked,	awaked.
Bear (<i>to bring forth</i>),	bore, bare,	born.
Bear (<i>to carry</i>),	bore,	borne.
Beat,	beat,	beat, beaten.
Begin,	began,	begun.
Bend,	bended, bent,	bended, bent.
Bereave,	bereaved, bereft,	bereaved, bereft.
Beseech,	besought,	besought.
Bestride,	bestrid, bestrode,	bestrid, bestriden.
Bid,	bid, bade,	bid, bidden.
Bind,	bound,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	bitten, bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Break,	broke,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	bred.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Bring,	brought,	brought.
Build,	built, builded,	built, builded.
Burn,	burned, burnt,	burned, burnt.
Burst,	burst,	burst.
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Catch,	caught, catched,	caught, catched.
Chide,	chid,	chid, chidden.
Choose,	chose,	chosen, chose.
Cleave (<i>to split</i>),	cleft, clove,	cleft, cloven.
Cling,	clung,	clung.
Clothe,	clothed, clad,	clothed, clad.
Come,	came,	come.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	crept.
Crow,	crew, crowed,	crowed.
Cut,	cut,	cut.
Dare (<i>to venture</i>),	dared, durst,	dared.
Deal,	dealed, dealt,	dealed, dealt.
Dig,	dug, digged,	dug, digged.
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Dream,	dreamed, dreamt,	dreamed, dreamt.
Drink,	drank,	drunk.
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Dwell,	dwelled, dwelt,	dwelled, dwelt.
Eat,	eat, ate,	eat, eaten.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fought.
Find,	found,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Get,	got,	got, gotten.
Gild,	gilded, gilt,	gilded, gilt.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Gird,	girded, girt,	girded, girt.
Give,	gave,	given.
Go,	went,	gone.
Grave,	graved,	graven, graved.
Grind,	ground,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Hang,	hanged, hung,	hanged, hung.
Have,	had,	had.
Hear,	heard,	heard.
Heave,	heaved, hove,	heaved.
Hew,	hewed,	hewed, hewn.
Hide,	hid,	hid, hidden.
Hit,	hit,	hit.
Hold,	held,	held.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	kept.
Kneel,	kneeled, knelt,	kneeled, knelt.
Knit,	knit, knitted,	knit, knitted.
Know,	knew,	known.
Lade,	laded,	laded, laden.
Lay,*	laid,	laid.
Lead,	led,	led.
Leave,	left,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lent.
Let,	let,	let.
Lie,†	lay,	lain.
Light,	lighted, lit,	lighted, lit.
Lose,	lost,	lost.
Make,	made,	made.
Mean,	meant,	meant.
Meet,	met,	met.
Mow,	mowed,	mowed, mown.
Pay,	paid,	paid.
Pen (<i>to coop</i>),	penned, pent,	penned, pent.
Put,	put,	put.

* Lay (transitive), *To place ; to put ; to cause to lie.*

† Lie (intransitive), *To be at rest in a horizontal position ; to recline ; to rest ; to remain.*

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Quit,	quit, quitted,	quit, quitted.
Read,	read,	read.
Rend,	rent,	rent.
Rid,	rid, ridded,	rid, ridded.
Ride,	rode,	ridden.
Ring,	rang, rung,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Rive,	rived,	rived, riven.
Run,	ran, run,	run.
Saw,	sawed,	sawed, sawn.
Say,	said,	said.
See,	saw,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	sought.
Seethe,	seethed,	seethed, sodden.
Sell,	sold,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sent.
Set,*	set,	set.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Shape,	shaped,	shaped, shapen.
Shave,	shaved,	shaved, shaven.
Shear,	sheared,	sheared, shorn.
Shed,	shed,	shed.
Shine,	shone, shined,	shone, shined.
Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Show,	showed,	shown, showed.
Shred,	shred,	shred.
Shrink,	shrunk,	shrunk.
Shut,	shut,	shut.
Sing,	sung, sang,	sung.
Sink,	sunk, sank,	sunk.
Sit,†	sat,	sat.
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Slide,	slid,	slid, slidden.

* Set (transitive), *To place; to affix; to adjust; to plant; (intransitive), To fall below the horizon, as the sun.*

† Sit: *To be in any local position; to rest; to hold a session; to incubate.*

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Sling,	slung,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Slit,	slit, slitted,	slit, slitted.
Smell,	smelled, smelt,	smelled, smelt.
Smite,	smote,	smitten, smit.
Sow,	sowed,	sowed, sown.
Speak,	spoke, spake,	spoken.
Speed,	sped, speeded,	sped, speeded.
Spell,	spelled, spelt,	spelled, spelt.
Spend,	spent,	spent.
Spill,	spilled, spilt,	spilled, spilt.
Spin,	spun,	spun.
Spit,	spit, spat,	spit.
Split,	split, splitted,	split, splitted.
Spoil,	spoiled, spoilt,	spoiled, spoilt.
Spread,	spread,	spread.
Spring,	sprung, sprang,	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	stood.
Stave,	staved, stove,	staved, stove.
Stay,	stayed, staid,	stayed, staid.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stung.
Stink,	stunk,	stunk.
Strew,	strewed,	strewed, strewn.
Stride,	strid, strode,	strid, stridden.
Strike,	struck,	struck, stricken.
String,	strung,	strung.
Strive,	strove,	striven.
Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Sweat,	sweat, sweated,	sweat, sweated.
Sweep,	swept,	swept.
Swell,	swelled,	swelled, swollen.
Swim,	swam, swum,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swung.
Take,	took,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	taught.
Tear,	tore,	torn.
Tell,	told,	told.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Think,	thought,	thought.
Thrive,	thrived,	thrived, thriven.
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	trod, trodden.
Wax,	waxed,	waxed, waxen.
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	woven, wove.
Weep,	wept,	wept.
Wet,	wet, wetted,	wet, wetted.
Win,	won,	won.
Wind,	wound,	wound.
Work,	worked, wrought,	worked, wrought.
Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Write,	wrote,	written.

Fill the blanks with the proper verb *sit* or *set* in the following sentences :

— down and rest.

A hen — on eggs.

We — on a horse.

We — around the table.

The sun — at five o'clock.

We — the duck on her nest.

He — down to take a short rest.

The boys — by the lake watching the fish.

III. DEFECTIVE VERBS.

A Defective Verb is one that is not used in all the Moods and Tenses ; as, *must*, *ought*, *quoth*, etc.

IV. AUXILIARY VERBS.

An Auxiliary Verb is one which helps to form the Moods and Tenses of other verbs.

The auxiliary verbs are, *shall*, *may*, *can*, *must*, *be*, *do*, *have*, and *will*.

Give the meaning of each of these auxiliary verbs.

Remarks on the Auxiliary Verbs.

1. Auxiliary, or helping verbs, are so called because by their help the other verbs form most of their moods and tenses.

2. *Be, do, have*, and sometimes *will*, are also used as principal verbs; as, they *may be* here; they *do* nothing; they *have* nothing; they *will* it to be so. As principal verbs, they have all the moods and tenses which other verbs have.

3. *Be*, as an auxiliary, is used in all its moods, tenses, numbers, and persons, in forming the passive voice of other verbs; as, *I am* loved, *I was* loved, *I have been* loved, etc.

4. *Have, do, will, shall, may, can*, as Auxiliaries, are used in only two forms, and *must* in only one form:

Present. Have, do, will, shall, can, may, must.

Past. Had, did, would, should, could, might.

5. These forms taken by themselves may be considered as the Present and Past, but they do not always form the present and past when in combination with the other Auxiliaries or with the principal verb.

6. *Shall, may, can*, and *must* are defective, having only the tenses given above, and are never used except as Auxiliaries.

What is the meaning or intent of the verb in each of the following sentences:

Shall I go?

Can she go?

Will you go?

May I come?

Must friends part?

Could you stand the fatigue?

Should he be permitted to speak?

I might come if you would ask consent.

III. CONJUGATION.

The Conjugation of a verb is the orderly arrangement of its voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.

The verb "To Be" is irregular and intransitive, and has no voice.

Conjugation of the verb **To Be.**

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. I am.
2. Thou art.
3. He is.

Plural.

1. We are.
2. You are.
3. They are.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. I was.
2. Thou wast.
3. He was.

Plural.

1. We were.
2. You were.
3. They were.

*Future Tense.**Singular.*

1. I shall be.
2. Thou wilt be.
3. He will be.

Plural.

1. We shall be.
2. You will be.
3. They will be.

*Present-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I have been.
2. Thou hast been.
3. He has been.

Plural.

1. We have been.
2. You have been.
3. They have been.

*Past-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I had been.
2. Thou hadst been.
3. He had been.

Plural.

1. We had been.
2. You had been.
3. They had been.

*Future-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I shall have been.
2. Thou wilt have been.
3. He will have been.

Plural.

1. We shall have been.
2. You will have been.
3. They will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I be.
2. If thou be.
3. If he be.

Plural.

1. If we be.
2. If you be.
3. If they be.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I were.
2. If thou wert.
3. If he were.

Plural.

1. If we were.
2. If you were.
3. If they were.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. I may be.
2. Thou mayst be.
3. He may be.

Plural.

1. We may be.
2. You may be.
3. They may be.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. I might be.
2. Thou mightst be.
3. He might be.

Plural.

1. We might be.
2. You might be.
3. They might be.

*Present-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I may have been.
2. Thou mayst have been.
3. He may have been.

Plural.

1. We may have been.
2. You may have been.
3. They may have been.

*Past-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I might have been.
2. Thou mightst have been.
3. He might have been.

Plural.

1. We might have been.
2. You might have been.
3. They might have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

2. Be, or be thou.

Plural.

2. Be, or be you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To be.*Present-Perfect.* To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being.*Past or Perfect.* Been.*Compound-Perfect.* Having been.

Remarks on the Conjugation.

1. In the formation of the Futures, we have two Auxiliaries, *shall* and *will*. For the expression of simple futurity, we use *shall* in the First Person, and *will* in the Second and Third Persons, as given in the table. On the other hand, by using *will* in the First Person, we express the determination of the speaker for himself and associates; by using *shall* in the Second and Third Persons, we express the determination of the speaker as to the actions or states of others. In other words, *shall* in the First Person, and *will* in the Second and Third Persons, foretell or express a future action. *Will* in the First Person, and *shall* in the Second and Third Persons, express a promise or a threat.

2. The singular form, *thou art*, is now used only in acts of worship, or on other solemn occasions. In ordinary discourse, in addressing one person, we say *you are*, *you were*, etc., the meaning being singular, but the form plural.

3. In the Third Person, the nominative of the verb may be any of the personal pronouns, *he*, *she*, *it*, any of the relative pronouns, *who*, *which*, *what*, *that*, etc., or any noun. For convenience of recitation, one nominative only is inserted.

4. In the Potential mood the auxiliary may be,

In the Present tense, *may*, *can*, or *must*;

In the Past tense, *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*;

In the Present-Perfect tense, *may have*, *can have*, or *must have*;

In the Past-Perfect tense, *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, or *should have*.

5. In conjugating the Subjunctive mood, the conjunction before the verb may be *if*, *though*, *although*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, *lest*, etc. For convenience in recitation, one conjunction only is used. It may also be conjugated in the Past tense by omitting the conjunction and transposing the nominative and verb. Thus: *were I*, *were thou*, *were he*; *were we*, *were you*, *were they*.

Fill the blanks with *shall* or *will*:

— I set the table?

I — go to town this afternoon, but my sister — go to-morrow.

How old — you be in October?

Mary is determined that the boy — help her.

— I call the boys?

We — have to run to catch the train.

She — meet you at her cousin's house.

— I call for you as I pass the house?

If you — come into the next room, I think we — see him.

— I be permitted to speak to the lady?

I — drown, nobody — help me.

— we be contented?

You — be satisfied.

I — go to the circus.

There — be no danger as father — go.

When — I receive the money?

What dress — I wear?

They — not remain in the house.

— you take part in the exercises?

I wonder if Lucy — remember to tell her mother.

Do you think we — have a good time?

Exercises.—Conjugate the verb “to be” through the Indicative mood, using “she” in the third person singular.

Conjugate the verb through the Indicative mood, using “it” in the third person singular.

Conjugate the verb through the Indicative mood, using “the man” for the subject in the singular, and “the men” for the subject in the plural.

Conjugate the verb through the Subjunctive mood, using “though” instead of “if.”

Conjugate it in like manner, using any of the other conjunctions named.

Conjugate it in the Potential mood, Present tense, using “can” instead of “may.” Conjugate it, using “must.”

Conjugate it in the Past tense, using “could;” using “would;” using “should.”

Conjugate it in the Present-Perfect tense, using “can have;” using “must have.”

Conjugate it in the Past-Perfect tense, using “could have;” using “would have;” using “should have.”

Conjugate the verbs given by using nouns as subjects when possible, and completing the sentence when the verb is transitive, etc.

Write the forms of conjugation in each of the moods and tenses, using a different verb for each number and person of each of the tenses of the several moods.

Conjugation of the verb *To Love*.

I. ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I love.	1. We love.
2. Thou lovest.	2. You love.
3. He loves.	3. They love.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I loved.	1. We loved.
2. Thou lovedst.	2. You loved.
3. He loved.	3. They loved.

Future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall love.	1. We shall love.
2. Thou wilt love.	2. You will love.
3. He will love.	3. They will love.

Present-Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have loved.	1. We have loved.
2. Thou hast loved.	2. You have loved.
3. He has loved.	3. They have loved.

Past-Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I had loved.	1. We had loved.
2. Thou hadst loved.	2. You had loved.
3. He had loved.	3. They had loved.

*Future-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I shall have loved.
2. Thou wilt have loved.
3. He will have loved.

Plural.

1. We shall have loved.
2. You will have loved.
3. They will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I love.
2. If thou love.
3. If he love.

Plural.

1. If we love.
2. If you love.
3. If they love.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I loved.
2. If thou loved.
3. If he loved.

Plural.

1. If we loved.
2. If you loved.
3. If they loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. I may love.
2. Thou mayst love.
3. He may love.

Plural.

1. We may love.
2. You may love.
3. They may love.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. I might love.
2. Thou mightst love.
3. He might love.

Plural.

1. We might love.
2. You might love.
3. They might love.

*Present-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I may have loved.
2. Thou mayst have loved.
3. He may have loved.

Plural.

1. We may have loved.
2. You may have loved.
3. They may have loved.

*Past-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I might have loved.
2. Thou mightst have loved.
3. He might have loved.

Plural.

1. We might have loved.
2. You might have loved.
3. They might have loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Love, or love thou.		Love, or love you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i> To love.	<i>Present-Perfect.</i> To have loved.
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PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i> Loving.	<i>Past or Perfect.</i> Loved.
	<i>Compound-Perfect.</i> Having loved.

II. PASSIVE VOICE.

The Passive Voice of a verb is formed by placing before its Past Participle the various moods, tenses, numbers, and persons of the verb *To be*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am loved.		1. We are loved.
2. Thou art loved.		2. You are loved.
3. He is loved.		3. They are loved.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I was loved.		1. We were loved.
2. Thou wast loved.		2. You were loved.
3. He was loved.		3. They were loved.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Future Tense.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall be loved.		1. We shall be loved.
2. Thou wilt be loved.		2. You will be loved.
3. He will be loved.		3. They will be loved.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Present-Perfect Tense.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have been loved.		1. We have been loved.
2. Thou hast been loved.		2. You have been loved.
3. He has been loved.		3. They have been loved.

*Past-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I had been loved.
2. Thou hadst been loved.
3. He had been loved.

Plural.

1. We had been loved.
2. You had been loved.
3. They had been loved.

*Future-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I shall have been loved.
2. Thou wilt have been loved.
3. He will have been loved.

Plural.

1. We shall have been loved.
2. You will have been loved.
3. They will have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I be loved.
2. If thou be loved.
3. If he be loved.

Plural.

1. If we be loved.
2. If you be loved.
3. If they be loved.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I were loved.
2. If thou wert loved.
3. If he were loved.

Plural.

1. If we were loved.
2. If you were loved.
3. If they were loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. I may be loved.
2. Thou mayst be loved.
3. He may be loved.

Plural.

1. We may be loved.
2. You may be loved.
3. They may be loved.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. I might be loved.
2. Thou mightst be loved.
3. He might be loved.

Plural.

1. We might be loved.
2. You might be loved.
3. They might be loved.

*Present-Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I may have been loved.
2. Thou mayst have been loved.
3. He may have been loved.

Plural.

1. We may have been loved.
2. You may have been loved.
3. They may have been loved.

*Past-Perfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I might have been loved. | 1. We might have been loved. |
| 2. Thou mightst have been loved. | 2. You might have been loved. |
| 3. He might have been loved. | 3. They might have been loved. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 2. Be loved, <i>or</i> be thou loved. | 2. Be loved, <i>or</i> be you loved. |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To be loved. *Present-Perfect.* To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being loved. *Past or Perfect.* Loved.
Compound-Perfect. Having been loved.

III. PROGRESSIVE FORM.

The **Progressive Form** of a verb is that form which represents the action as in progress, or as incomplete.

The Progressive form of any verb is made by placing before its Present Participle the various moods, tenses, numbers, and persons of the verb *to be*. Thus: I am writing, I was writing, I shall be writing, etc.

Exercises in the Progressive Form.

Conjugate the verb "sing" through all the tenses of the Indicative mood, in the Progressive form.

Conjugate "know" through the Subjunctive mood, Progressive form.

Conjugate "write" through the Potential mood, Progressive form.

Conjugate "stand" through the Imperative and Infinitive moods, Progressive form.

IV. EMPHATIC FORM.

The **Emphatic Form** of a verb is that in which the assertion is expressed with emphasis.

The **Emphatic Form** of a verb is made by placing before it the verb *do* as an auxiliary.

The **Emphatic Form** is used only in the Present and Past tenses of the Indicative and Subjunctive moods, Active voice, and in the Imperative mood, both Active and Passive.

Conjugation of the Verb **To Love**, in the **Emphatic Form**.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I do love.	1. We do love.
2. Thou dost love.	2. You do love.
3. He does love.	3. They do love.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I did love.	1. We did love.
2. Thou didst love.	2. You did love.
3. He did love.	3. They did love.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I do love.	1. If we do love.
2. If thou do love.	2. If you do love.
3. If he do love.	3. If they do love.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I did love.	1. If we did love.
2. If thou did love.	2. If you did love.
3. If he did love.	3. If they did love.

IMPERATIVE.

Active—Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i> Do (thou) love.	<i>Plural.</i> Do (you) love.
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Passive—Present Tense.

Singular. Do (thou) be loved. *Plural.* Do (you) be loved.

The participle of a transitive verb, with its object, is called a *participial phrase*, and is adverbial or adjectival in character.

The infinitive form of a transitive verb is called an *infinitive phrase*, and is adverbial or adjectival in character.

A verb is conjugated negatively by using the adverb "not" in each of the persons and numbers.

Exercises.—In the following sentences and paragraphs, name each part of speech, its class, its properties, and its use. State what each article and each adjective modifies. Name the word to which each pronoun refers. Name the voice, mood, tense, number, and person of each verb. Name the gender, number, person, and case of each noun and pronoun. Name the subject of each verb. Name the phrases, and tell the kind, its use, and what it modifies.

If he acquire riches, they will corrupt his mind.

Though he is high, he hath respect to the lowly.

Despise not any condition, lest it happen to be thine own.

A witty punster may afford amusement to persons, but amusement is not the business of life, though it tends ever so much to relieve the mind. Therefore, do not consider him a model worthy of imitation.

My son, wert thou a father, thou couldst understand the feelings of him who now mourns over the wrong which thou hast committed. Had I been thy son, I think I should not only have been grieved on account of that which I had done, but also should have regretted that I had caused sorrow in the breast of him who loved me so tenderly.

The miser will will his property to those who will perhaps use it for sinful purposes. Had he had less avarice, his happiness would have been increased. Do not do as he does, lest thou, like him, become a wretched man, and have to say, "I have been heaping up riches all my life, but I have not been increasing my happiness. Had I been adding to the happiness of others, and laying up treasures where moth and rust do not corrupt, I should have been employing myself better and saving my soul."

TOPICAL OUTLINE.

 THE VERB.

Regular, Irregular, Transitive, Intransitive, Auxiliary, Defective.

Voice . . .	{ Active, Passive.
Mood . . .	{ Indicative, Subjunctive, Potential, Imperative, Infinitive.
Tense . . .	{ Present, Past, Future, Present-Perfect, Past-Perfect, Future-Perfect.
Participle.	{ Present, Perfect, Compound-Perfect.
Conjugation.	{ Regular in all moods and tenses, Progressive, Emphatic, Negative, Interrogative.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What is a verb? Give an example. What attributes do verbs have? What is a participle? Why so called? How

many classes of participles are there? Name them. What does each denote? Give examples of each. What is voice? How many voices do verbs have? Name them. Define each. Give examples of each.

What is mood? How many moods do verbs have? Define each. Give examples of each. Why is the infinitive so called? The subjunctive? What is tense? How many tenses do verbs have? Define each. Give examples of each. Do verbs have number and person? Do they indicate in themselves the idea of number or person? Whence then derived?

Define transitive verb. Intransitive verb. What kind of verbs are used in the passive voice? Can a verb be used both transitively and intransitively? Give examples. What is a regular verb? An irregular verb? Give examples. Define impersonal verb. Defective verb. Auxiliary verb. Give examples. Why so called? Name the auxiliary verbs. How used? What are defective verbs? Why so called? Give examples. What is meant by conjugation? Give an example. What auxiliaries are peculiar to the potential mood? What auxiliary is peculiar to certain tenses? How is the passive voice formed? How is the emphatic form of a verb made?

Write a composition on Verbs, using the Topical Outline as a basis.



VI. THE ADVERB.

An Adverb is a word used to modify a Verb, an Adjective, or another Adverb; as, He writes *rapidly*, A *very* fast horse, He wrote *very* rapidly.

Examples.—Come *here instantly* and answer me *more respectfully*, or you will receive a *very* severe correction.

“Here” modifies the verb “come,” it tells *where* you are to come.

“Instantly” also modifies “come,” it tells *when* you are to come.

“Respectfully” modifies the verb “answer,” it tells *in what manner* you are to answer.

"More" modifies the adverb "respectfully," it tells *how* respectfully you are to answer.

"Very" modifies the adjective "severe," it tells *how* severe the punishment will be.

Remarks on Adverbs.

1. Adverbs are not necessary parts of speech, as their meaning may always be expressed by other parts of speech. They usually express in one word what would otherwise require several words. *Here*, for instance, means "in this place."

2. Some of the adverbs appear to be formed by the combination of two or more words, which have gradually coalesced into one. Thus, *bravely* is an abbreviation of brave-like, *wisely*, of wise-like, *happily* of happy-like. Others again are composed of nouns, and the letter *a* used for *at*, *on*, etc.; as, *aside*, *ahead*, *abroad*, *ashore*, *aground*, *afloat*.

3. Sometimes several words are taken together and called an *adverbial phrase*; as, *at length*, *in vain*. These expressions are elliptical, and the ellipsis can almost always be supplied.

4. Some adverbs perform at the same time the office of adverbs and of conjunctions; as, "They will come *when* they are ready." Here, "*when*" declares the time of the action, therefore it is an adverb; it also connects the two verbs, and therefore it is a conjunction. Such adverbs are called by some grammarians, *conjunctive adverbs*; by others, *adverbial conjunctions*. The most common of them are, *when*, *where*, *whither*, *whenever*, *wherever*, *then*, *how*, *whence*, *why*, *as before*, *after*, *until*.

5. The adverb *there* is often used as a mere expletive, without apparently any signification of its own, as in the sentence, "*There* was a man sent from God, whose name was John."

6. Some words are used sometimes as adverbs, and sometimes as adjectives. Among these are the following: *little*, *less*, *least*, *better*, *best*, *much*, *more*, *most*, *no*, *only*, *well*, *ill*, *still*, *first*, *next*, *hard*, *fast*, *early*, *late*, *daily*. If any of these words modifies a noun, it is an adjective; but if it modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, it is an adverb.

Comparison of Adverbs.

Many Adverbs are compared.

Some Adverbs are compared by adding *er* and *est* to the Positive ; as, *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*.

Adverbs ending in *ly* are compared by prefixing *more* and *most*, *less* and *least* ; as, *happily*, *more happily*, *most happily* ; *less happily*, *least happily*.

Irregular Comparison.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Well	better	best
Ill	worse	worst
Badly	worse	worst
Much	more	most
Far	farther	farthest.

Classes of Adverbs.

Adverbs are divided into classes, according to their signification. The most important of these classes are—

1. Adverbs of Manner or Quality ; as, *well*, *ill*, *swiftly*, *smoothly*, *truly*, and many others formed from adjectives by adding the termination *ly*. This is by far the most numerous class of adverbs.

2. Adverbs of Place ; as, *here*, *there*, *where*, *hither*, *thither*, *whither*, *hence*, *thence*, *whence*, *somewhere*, *nowhere*.

3. Adverbs of Time ; as, *now*, *then*, *when*, *ever*, *never*, *soon*, *often*, *seldom*, *lately*.

4. Adverbs of Quantity ; as, *much*, *little*, *sufficiently*, *enough*, *scarcely*.

5. Adverbs of Direction ; as, *downward*, *upward*, *forward*, *backward*, *homeward*, *heavenward*, *hitherward*, *thitherward*.

6. Adverbs of Number, Order, etc. (including all those formed from the Numeral Adjectives) ; as, *first*, *secondly*, *thirdly* ; *once*, *twice*, *thrice* ; *singly*, *doubly*, *triply*.

7. Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation ; as, *yes*, *no*, *verily*, *indeed*, *nay*, *nowise*, *doubtless*.

8. Adverbs of Interrogation ; as, *how, why, when, where, whither, whence.*

9. Adverbs of Comparison ; as, *more, most, less, least, better, best, very, exceedingly, nearly, almost.*

10. Adverbs of Uncertainty ; as, *perchance, perhaps, peradventure.*

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the conjunctive adverbs.

Show by sentences how the words named in paragraph 6, page 85, may be used as adjectives and also as adverbs.

Compare the adverbs *freely, wisely, soon, long, earnestly, scarcely, truly.*

Show that they are adverbs by using them in sentences and telling what they modify.

Exercises.—In the following sentences, name the part of speech of each word, its class, its attributes, and its use. Name each verb used and give its subject. Name the articles, adjectives, and adverbs used as modifiers, and tell what they modify.

You take my life, when you do take the means whereby I live.

Night's candles are burnt out, and jocund day stands tip-toe on the misty mountain top.

When the water was hot enough, he boiled the herbs in it thoroughly and made the tea sufficiently strong.

The wind bloweth where it listeth, and thou hearest the sound thereof, but can'st not tell whence it cometh and whither it goeth.

This idle boy was the least attentive of the scholars, and studied least. He therefore received the least amount of benefit. Better boys will behave better and reap a better reward.

There was no author who spoke more fluently. Thrice was he applauded. Turn your eye whither you would, you might see persons attentively listening. Seldom was such an attentive multitude assembled in our much too quiet village.

Write the preceding sentences, using other adverbs instead of those given.

TOPICAL OUTLINE.



THE ADVERB.

Comparison. { Positive,
Comparative,
Superlative,
Irregular.

Classes. 1.—Conjunctive.

{ Manner,
Place,
Time,
2. { Quantity,
Direction,
Number,
Uncertainty, etc.



QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What is an adverb? Give examples illustrating all its uses.
What is an adverbial phrase? What is a conjunctive adverb?
What is it sometimes called? Why so called? Give examples.

Are adverbs compared? How? Give some irregular comparisons. Into how many classes are adverbs divided? Give the names of the classes. Name three adverbs of each of the classes.

Write a composition on Adverbs, using the Topical Outline as a basis.



VII. THE CONJUNCTION.

A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect words, sentences, and parts of sentences; as, John *and* James study; John writes *and* James reads; He is *neither* strong in body *nor* sound in mind.

The following are the principal Conjunctions: *also, although, and, as, because, both, but, either, for, if, lest, neither, nor, or, since, than, that, then, therefore, though, unless, wherefore, whether, yet.*

Conjunctions are divided into three classes—Co-ordinate Conjunctions, Subordinate Conjunctions, and Correlative or Corresponding Conjunctions.

A Co-ordinate Conjunction connects sentences or parts of sentences of equal rank. The principal co-ordinate conjunctions are *and, but, nor, or, yet.*

A Subordinate Conjunction connects parts of sentences of unequal rank. The principal subordinate conjunctions are *as, because, except, if, provided, than, that, unless.*

Co-ordinate Conjunctions join the parts of compound sentences or phrases.

Subordinate Conjunctions join the parts of complex sentences.

Some conjunctions are used in pairs. Such conjunctions are called *Correlative* or *Corresponding* Conjunctions. The principal Correlative Conjunctions are *as—so, although—yet, both—and, either—or, neither—nor, whether—or, if—then, though—yet.*

Sometimes the connection of the words or sentences is made, not by any one conjunction, but by two or more conjunctions, not correlatives, taken together. Such combinations of words are called *Complex* Conjunctions. The principal Complex Conjunctions are *as if, as well as, but that, except that, forasmuch as, inasmuch as, even though.*

All conjunctions are used to connect, but all connectives are not conjunctions—conjunctive adverbs and relative pronouns and prepositions are used as connectives.

When conjunctions connect words, the words so connected must be the same parts of speech, that is a verb and a verb, an adjective and an adjective, etc., except that nouns and pronouns may be connected by a conjunction.

Exercises.—In the following sentences, name the part of speech of each word, its class, its attributes, and its use. Name the conjunctions, and tell what they connect:

Any coward can fight a battle when he is sure of winning;

but give me the man who has the pluck to fight when he is sure of losing.

Unless a man lacks virtue, whether he is humble in rank or poor in purse, he is worthy of respect and esteem. Yet there are some who, notwithstanding their wealth and the advantages of fortune, are deemed respectable, though their vicious habits should subject them to contempt. These shun the virtuous poor, lest they might degrade themselves in their own estimation. But they forget that they might be improved by intercourse with their virtuous but poor brethren.

Insert proper conjunctions in the following paragraphs :

I shall need an umbrella, — it rain to-morrow ; — — it be a clear day, I shall not need it, — I never use it to protect me from the sun.

The colonel remained at his post, — he was near fainting from the loss of blood — the pain of his wounds. He declared — no one else should stand by the flag ; he would protect it while he had life — strength left. Faithfully — heroically he kept his word.

TOPICAL OUTLINE.

THE CONJUNCTION.

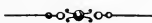
Classes.	{	Co-ordinate, Subordinate, Correlative or Corresponding, Compound.
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QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What is a conjunction? Give examples of its different uses. Name the principal conjunctions. Into what classes divided? Give the use of a co-ordinate conjunction. A sub-

ordinate conjunction. What is a correlative or corresponding conjunction? A complex conjunction? Give examples of each kind, and illustrate its use by appropriate sentences.

Write a composition on Conjunctions, using the Topical Outline as a basis:



VIII. THE PREPOSITION.

A **Preposition** is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to some other word ; as, He writes *with* a pen ; He lives *in* a tent ; A man *of* wisdom.

The principal relations indicated by Prepositions are *time, place, cause, possession, manner*, etc.

Simple Prepositions.

The Simple Prepositions are nineteen : *after, at, by, down, for, from, in, of, on, over, past, round, since, through, till, to, under, up, with*.

Compound Prepositions.

The following Compound Prepositions are formed by prefixing *a* to some other word : *about, above, across, against, along, amid, amidst, among, amongst, around, athwart*.

The prefix *a*, which occurs in these and so many other English compounds, represents a variety of small words, such as *at, of, in, on, to*. In the compound prepositions, it usually represents *on* or *in*. The other part of the compound is some noun, adjective, adverb, or other preposition.

The following Compound Prepositions are formed by prefixing *be* to some other words : *before, behind, below, beneath, beside or besides, between or betwixt, beyond*.

The following Compound Prepositions are formed by uniting without change two prepositions, or a preposition and an ad-

verb; *into, throughout, toward, towards, underneath, unto, upon, within, without.*

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the simple and compound prepositions named.

A preposition with its related word is called a *prepositional phrase*. Phrases of this kind are adjectival or adverbial, and modify nouns, adjectives, verbs, or adverbs after the manner of adjectives and adverbs.

Exercises.—In the following paragraphs, name the part of speech of each word, its class, its attributes, and its use. Select the prepositional phrases, and tell whether they modify as adjectives or as adverbs:

In the morning of a sunny Sabbath day, the village children, with happy faces, were on their way to the house of God. The sun that looked down from above upon them, the blue sky over them, and the flowery earth beneath their feet, were not more brilliant than the glance of their eyes. Hand in hand they went along the path leading to the church, with praise upon their tongues, and gratitude reigning within their hearts.

Fitz James was brave; though to his heart
The life-blood thrilled with sudden start,
He manned himself with dauntless air,
Returned the chief his haughty stare,
His back against a rock he bore,
And firmly placed his foot before;—
Come one, come all! this rock shall fly
From its firm base as soon as I.

TOPICAL OUTLINE.

THE PREPOSITION.

Classes. { Simple,
 { Compound.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What is a preposition? Name some of the relations indicated. Name the simple prepositions. How are the compound prepositions formed? Name those formed by prefixing *a*. Name those formed by prefixing *be*. Name those formed by uniting two prepositions. What is a prepositional phrase?

Write a composition on Prepositions, using the Topical Outline as a basis.



IX. THE INTERJECTION.

An Interjection is a word used in making sudden exclamations; as, *oh! ah! alas!*

The principal Interjections are, *adieu, ah, aha, alack, alas, begone, ha, hail, hallo, hark, he, hist, ho, hum, hush, huzza, lo, O, oh, pshaw, see.*

"O" is used before a noun, and is not followed directly by any mark of punctuation. The exclamation point is used at the end of the expression.

"Oh" is an interjection denoting emotion, pleasurable or otherwise, and the exclamation point follows it.

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the interjections.



WORDS USED AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

As, meaning *because*, or *since*, is a Conjunction. Example: *As the wind was favorable, we set sail.* It is also a part of the Correlative Conjunction *as—so*, and of several Complex Conjunctions, *as well as*, etc.

As, in all other cases, is an Adverb.

BEFORE, AFTER, TILL, and UNTIL, when followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case, are Prepositions. Examples:

Come *before* dinner.

Come *after* dinner

Wait *till* midnight.

Wait *until* your turn.

BEFORE, AFTER, TILL, and UNTIL, when not followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case, are Adverbs. Examples :

Come *before* I have dined.

Come *after* I have dined.

Wait *till* I have dined.

BOTH is an Adjective, when it means *the two* ; as, *Both* shoes need mending.

BOTH is a Conjunction in all other cases ; as, I *both* love and respect him.

BUT is a Preposition, when it means *except* ; as, He lost all his books *but* his dictionary.

BUT is an Adverb, when it means *only* ; as, I *but* touched him and he cried.

BUT is a Conjunction in all other instances.

EITHER is a Distributive Adjective Pronoun, when it means *one of the two* ; as, *Either* of the boys may do it.

EITHER is a Conjunction in all other cases.

NEITHER is a Distributive Adjective Pronoun, when it means *not one of the two*.

NEITHER is a Conjunction in all other cases. Give an example.

FOR is a Conjunction, when it means *because*, and is used in giving a reason ; as, I obey him, *for* he is my father, that is, because He is my father.

FOR is a Preposition in all other cases. Give an example.

SINCE, meaning *for the reason that*, is a Conjunction ; as, *Since* it is your wish, I will certainly do it.

SINCE, when placed before a noun denoting a period of time, is a Preposition ; as, I have had no food *since* Monday.

SINCE, in other cases, is an Adverb. Give an example.

THEN, meaning *in that case*, or *therefore*, is a Conjunction ; as, If all this be so, *then* I am right.

THEN, in all other instances, is an Adverb. Give an example.

THAT is a Relative Pronoun, when either *who*, *whom*, or *which* may be used in its place ; as, He is the wisest man *that* lives in our village.

THAT is a Demonstrative Adjective Pronoun, when *the* may be used instead of it ; as, *That* house which I see.

THAT is a Conjunction in all other cases ; as, He wears warm

clothes *that* he may not catch cold. Here, *who*, *whom*, *which*, or *the*, could not be used for *that*.

WHAT is a Relative Pronoun, when *that which* or *those which* can be used in its stead; as, Eat *what* is set before you. That is, Eat *that which* is set before you.

WHAT is an Interrogative Pronoun, when used to ask a question; as, *What* do you see?

WHAT is an Adjective Pronoun, when joined with a noun, but not asking a question; as, *What* wonders he performed. He gave *what* money he had to the poor.

WHAT, when uttered as a mere exclamation, and to denote surprise, is an Interjection; as, *What!* abuse your mother!

WHILE, meaning *to pass or spend time*, is a Verb; as, They managed to *while* away the hour very pleasantly.

WHILE, meaning *a portion of time*, is a Noun; as, Let us sing *a while*.

WHILE, meaning *during the time that*, is an Adverb; as, The act was done *while* I was absent.

YET, meaning *nevertheless, notwithstanding*, is a Conjunction; as, Though he slay me, *yet* will I trust in him.

YET, meaning *up to a certain time, or over and above*, is an Adverb; as, Has the boy come *yet*? I will give you *yet* one more reason.

DERIVATION OF WORDS.

By the Derivation of words is meant tracing them to their original form and meaning.

A Primitive word is a word in its original form; as, *good*, *man*, *see*, *run*.

A Derivative word is a word formed from another by some change in its termination, or by the addition of some letters at the beginning or end of the word; as, *goodness*, *manly*, *foresee*, *outrun*.

When the added letters make by themselves a word, the word so formed is called a **compound word**.

When such a compound is in common use, a hyphen is not used between the parts; as, *beehive*, *policeman*, *railroad*.

When the compound is an unusual one, or one not in gen-

eral use, a hyphen should be used between the parts ; as, *pear-orchard*, *man-of-war*, *good-natured*.

A letter or a syllable placed at the beginning of a word is called a **prefix**.

A letter or a syllable placed at the end of a word is called an **affix** or **suffix**.

The PREFIXES are usually prepositions, and belong to three principal classes : the Saxon, the Latin, and the Greek.

I. PREFIXES OF SAXON ORIGIN.

A signifies *on* or *in* ; as, *ashore*, that is, *on shore*.

Be signifies *about* ; as, *bestir*, that is, *stir about* ; also, *for* or *before* ; as, *bespeak*, that is, to speak *for* or *before*. It has also several other meanings.

For denies ; as, *bid*, *forbid* (*bid not to do a thing*).

Fore signifies *before* ; as, see, *foresee*.

Mis signifies *defect* or *error* ; as, take, *mistake*.

Over denotes *superiority* or *excess* ; as, *done*, *overdone*.

Out signifies *excess* or *superiority* ; as, *run*, *outrun*.

Un before an adjective signifies *not* ; as, *worthy*, *unworthy* ; before a verb it signifies the undoing of the act expressed by the verb ; as, *tie*, *untie*.

Up denotes *motion upward* ; as, *start*, *upstart* ; and also *subversion* ; as, *set*, *upset*.

With signifies *against*, *from* ; as, *stand*, *withstand* ; *draw*, *withdraw*.

Name other words of Saxon origin with these prefixes, and give the meaning of the prefix and of the word.

II. PREFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN.

A (*ab* or *abs*) signifies *from* or *away* ; as, *abstract*, to draw away.

Ad signifies *to*, *at* ; as, *adjoin*, to join to (*Ad* assumes different forms according to the first letter of the root to which it is prefixed ; as, *ascend*, *accede*, *affect*, *aggrieve*, etc.).

Ambi from *ambo*, both, signifies *double* ; as, *ambiguous* (having two meanings.).

Ante signifies *before* ; thus, *antediluvian*, before the flood.

Bene signifies *good*, *well* ; as, *benevolent*, well disposed.

Bi or *bis* means *two* or *twice* ; as, *bisect*, to cut into two parts.

Circum signifies *round, about*; as, *circumnavigate*, to sail round.

Cis signifies *on this side*; as, *cis-alpine*, on this side the Alps.

Con (*com, co, or col*) signifies *together*; as, *convoke*, to call together.

Contra (*counter, contro*) signifies *against*; as, *contradict*, to speak against; *counteract*, to act against.

De signifies *of, from, or down*; as, *dethrone*, to drive from the throne.

Di (*dis, dif*) signifies *asunder*; as, *distract*, to draw asunder. It also signifies *negation or undoing*; as, *disobey*, not to obey.

E (*ex*) signifies *out of*; as, *elect*, to choose out of.

Equi signifies *equal*; as, *equidistant*, at an equal distance.

Extra signifies *out of, beyond*; as, *extraordinary*, beyond the ordinary course.

In, before an adjective, serves as a *negative*; as, *active, inactive*; before a verb, *in* signifies *in or into*; as, *include*, to close in.

Inter signifies *between*; as, *intervene*, to come between.

Intro, signifies *to, within*; as, *introduce*, to lead in.

Juxta signifies *nigh to*; as, *juxtaposition*, placed near to.

Mal or *male* (from *malus*, bad) signifies *ill or bad*; as *malpractice*, bad practice.

Manu (from *manus*, a hand) signifies *with or by the hand*; as, *manuscript*, anything written by the hand.

Multi signifies *many*; as, *multiform*, having many forms.

Ob (*oc, of, o, op*) signifies *opposition*; as, *obstacle*, something standing in *opposition*.

Omni signifies *all*; as, *omnipotent*, all powerful.

Per signifies *through or thoroughly*; as, *perfect*, thoroughly done, finished.

Post signifies *after*; as, *postscript*, written after.

Præ or *pre*, signifies *before*; as, *prepaid*, paid before.

Pro signifies *forth or forwards*; as, *promote*, to move forwards.

Præter or *preter* signifies *past or beyond*; as, *preternatural*, beyond the course of nature.

Re signifies *again or back*; as, *regain*, to gain back.

Retro signifies *backwards*; as, *retrograde*, going backwards.

Se signifies *apart or without*; as, *secrete*, to hide, to put aside.

Sine signifies *without*; as, *sinecure*, without care or labor.

Sub signifies *under*; as, *submarine*, under the sea.

Super signifies *above* or *over*; as, *superscribe*, to write above or over.

Trans signifies *over*, *from one place to another*; as, *transport*, to carry over.

Name other words of Latin origin with these prefixes, and give the meaning of the prefix and the word.

III. PREFIXES OF GREEK ORIGIN.

A or *an* signifies *privation* or *without*; as, *anonymous*, without a name.

Amphi signifies *both* or *the two*; as, *amphibious*, having two lives, or capable of living both on land and in water.

Ana signifies *through* or *up*; as, *anatomy*, which means literally, a cutting up.

Anti (*ant*) signifies *against*; as, *antichristian*, against Christianity; *antarctic*, opposite the arctic.

Apo (*ap*) signifies *from*; as, *apogee*, from the earth; *aphelion*, from the sun.

Dia signifies *through*; as, *diameter*, a measure through.

Epi signifies *upon*; as, *epidemic*, upon or among the people.

Hyper signifies *over*, *above*; as, *hypercritical*, over critical, too critical.

Hypo signifies *under*, implying *concealment*; as, *hypocrite*, a person concealing his real character.

Meta signifies *change*, *transmutation*; as, *metamorphosis*, a change of shape.

Mono signifies *single*; as, *monosyllable*, a word of one syllable.

Para signifies *beyond*, *on one side*; as, *paradox*, an opinion beyond or contrary to the general opinion.

Peri signifies *round* or *about*; as, *perimeter*, a measure round.

Poly signifies *many*; as, *polysyllable*, a word of many syllables.

Semi (*demi*, *hemi*) signifies *half*; as, *semicircle*, half of a circle; *hemisphere*, half of a sphere.

Syn (*sy*, *syl*, *sym*) signifies *with*, *together*; as, *sympathy*, feeling with.

Name other words of Greek origin having these prefixes, and give the meaning of the prefix and the word.

IV. AFFIXES.

1. Affixes denoting the *agent* or *doer* :

<i>an</i> , as in <i>guardian</i> .	<i>ent</i> , as in <i>adherent</i> .
<i>ant</i> , <i>assistant</i> .	<i>er</i> , <i>baker</i> .
<i>ar</i> , <i>beggar</i> .	<i>ist</i> , <i>conformist</i> .
<i>ard</i> , <i>dotard</i> .	<i>ive</i> , <i>operative</i> .
<i>ary</i> , <i>adversary</i> .	<i>or</i> , <i>inspector</i> .
<i>cer</i> , <i>charioteer</i> .	<i>ster</i> , <i>punster</i> .

2. Affixes denoting the *person acted upon* :

<i>ate</i> , as in <i>potentate</i> .	<i>ite</i> , as in <i>favorite</i> .
<i>ee</i> , <i>assignee</i> .	

3. Affixes denoting *being* or *state of being* :

<i>acy</i> , as in <i>piracy</i> .	<i>ment</i> , as in <i>achievement</i> .
<i>age</i> , <i>bondage</i> .	<i>mony</i> , <i>acrimony</i> .
<i>ance</i> , <i>repentance</i> .	<i>ness</i> , <i>acuteness</i> .
<i>ancy</i> , <i>flagrancy</i> .	<i>ry</i> , <i>rivalry</i> .
<i>ence</i> , <i>adherence</i> .	<i>ship</i> , <i>friendship</i> .
<i>ency</i> , <i>emergency</i> .	<i>th</i> , <i>depth</i> .
<i>hood</i> , <i>boyhood</i> .	<i>tude</i> , <i>aptitude</i> .
<i>ion</i> , <i>exhaustion</i> .	<i>ty</i> , <i>loyalty</i> .
<i>ism</i> , <i>despotism</i> .	<i>ure</i> , <i>disclosure</i> .

4. Affixes denoting *jurisdiction* :

<i>dom</i> , as in <i>kingdom</i> .	<i>ric</i> , as in <i>bishopric</i> .
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5. Affixes denoting *diminution* :

<i>cle</i> , as in <i>corpuscle</i> .	<i>let</i> , as in <i>streamlet</i> .
<i>en</i> , <i>maiden</i> .	<i>ling</i> , <i>duckling</i> .
<i>kin</i> , <i>lambkin</i> .	<i>ock</i> , <i>hillock</i> .

6. Affixes denoting *of* or *pertaining to* :

<i>ac</i> , as in <i>elegiac</i> .	<i>ene</i> , as in <i>terrene</i> .
<i>al</i> , <i>autumnal</i> .	<i>ic</i> , <i>angelic</i> .
<i>an</i> , <i>republican</i> .	<i>ical</i> , <i>canonical</i> .
<i>ar</i> , <i>consular</i> .	<i>ile</i> , <i>infantile</i> .
<i>ary</i> , <i>momentary</i> .	<i>ine</i> , <i>adamantine</i> .
<i>en</i> , <i>wooden</i> .	<i>ory</i> , <i>expiatory</i> .

7. Affixes denoting *full of* :

<i>ate</i> , as in <i>affectionate</i> .	<i>ous</i> , as in <i>hazardous</i> .
<i>ful</i> , <i>hopeful</i> .	<i>some</i> , <i>gladsome</i> .
<i>ose</i> , <i>verbose</i> .	<i>y</i> , <i>pithy</i> .

8. Affixes denoting *capacity* :*able*, as in *profitable*.*ile*, as in *docile*.*ible*, *contemptible*.*ive*, *communicative*.9. Affixes denoting *to make* :*ate*, as in *alienate*.*ish*, as in *publish*.*en*, *brighten*.*ize*, *epitomize*.*fy*, *justify*.*se*, *cleanse*.10. *Miscellaneous* affixes :*like* signifies likeness, as in*saintlike*.*ly* " " "*maidenly*.*ish* " small degree of anything, as in *blackish*.*less* " negation, " *artless*.*ward* " in the direction of, " *homeward*.

Name examples other than those named in the list of affixes, and give the meaning of the affix and the word.



GENERAL EXERCISE.

Take an extract of twenty or more lines and classify all the words found therein according to their general meaning and use, as indicated by a dictionary. Classify them according to their meaning and use in the extract given.

Name all the words which are inflected, and those which may be inflected. Name the compound words. Name the derivative words ; from what derived ? give affix and prefix. Name words containing silent letters. Diphthongs. Triphthongs. Name words which have accented syllables.



TOPICAL OUTLINE.



ETYMOLOGY.

The Article . . . { Definite,
 { Indefinite.

The Noun	<div> <div>Proper,</div> <div>Common . .</div> </div> <div> <div>Collective,</div> <div>Abstract,</div> <div>Verbal,</div> <div>Diminutive.</div> </div>
The Adjective . .	<div>Descriptive,</div> <div>Definitive,</div> <div>Numeral.</div>
The Pronoun . .	<div> <div>Personal,</div> <div>Relative,</div> <div>Adjective or</div> <div>Pronominal</div> <div>Adjectives,</div> </div> <div> <div>Distributive,</div> <div>Demonstrative,</div> <div>Indefinite.</div> </div>
The Verb	<div>Regular,</div> <div>Irregular,</div> <div>Transitive,</div> <div>Intransitive,</div> <div>Principal,</div> <div>Auxiliary,</div> <div>Defective,</div> <div>Participles.</div>
The Adverb . . .	<div>Conjunctive,</div> <div>Manner, Place, Time, Direc-</div> <div>tion, etc.</div>
The Preposition.	<div>Simple,</div> <div>Compound.</div>
The Conjunction.	<div>Co-ordinate,</div> <div>Subordinate,</div> <div>Correlative, or Corresponding,</div> <div>Compound.</div>
The Interjection.	



THIRD PART.



SYNTAX AND ANALYSIS.

SYNTAX AND ANALYSIS treat of SENTENCES.

Syntax treats of putting words together into sentences.

Analysis treats of the separation of a sentence into the parts which compose it.



I. SYNTAX.

General Observations.

A Sentence is a number of words put together so as to make complete sense ; as, *Man is mortal.*

The principal parts of a sentence are the *Subject* (or nominative) and the *Predicate* (or verb).

A Phrase is a number of words, connected in meaning, but not containing a predicate, and not making by themselves complete sense ; as, “The good man, *in the midst of his usefulness*, has departed. In this sentence, the words, *in the midst of his usefulness*, form a phrase. Phrases in their office or use are either adjectival or adverbial.

A Clause is a part of a sentence, containing a predi-

cate with its subject, making by themselves complete sense, yet not independent, being used to modify some other part or parts of the sentence of which it is a part ; as, "The good man, *who had gained great renown*, has departed." In this sentence, the words, *who had gained great renown*, form a clause.

A Simple sentence is one which contains but one subject and one predicate ; as, *Life is short*.

A Complex sentence is one which contains a simple sentence, with one or more clauses modifying either its subject or its predicate ; as, *A life which is spent in doing good cannot be a failure*.

A Compound sentence is one which contains two or more sentences; whether simple or complex, connected by one or more conjunctions ; as, *Life is short, but art is long*.

The sentences which compose a compound sentence are called its **Members**.

RULE I.

THE SUBJECT OF A VERB MUST BE IN THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

The subject of a verb may be—

A Noun or a Pronoun,	} used as Nouns.
An Infinitive Phrase,	
A Participial Phrase,	
A Clause,	

The subject of a verb is usually placed before the verb.

NOTES.

1. Rule I. is violated by using the subject of the verb in any other case than the nominative.

Explanation.—The subject of the verb is that of which the assertion is made. “The book is in the desk.” “John and I went home.” Now, the subject of the verb, that of which anything is asserted, must be in the nominative case. It would be contrary to the Rule, therefore, to say, “John and *me* went home,” because “*me*,” one of the subjects, is not in the nominative case.

Exercise.—In the following sentences, state of what the assertion is made. In what case is the word of which the assertion is made? Why?

The sky is blue.

John is a carpenter.

The moon is shining.

2. Complex names, such as George Washington, Charles Henry Grant, etc., should be taken together in parsing, as if they were one word. Thus, “Charles Henry Grant,” a complex name, is a proper noun, etc.

3. The subject of the verb may be an infinitive mood, or a part of a sentence, used as a noun; as, “To steal will render us liable to punishment,” “Thou shalt not kill, is the sixth commandment.” In the former of these examples, “To steal” is the subject of the verb, just as “stealing” would be,

if the sentence were written, "Stealing will render us liable to punishment."

4. A noun or pronoun addressed, and not the subject of any verb, is in the **Nominative Case Independent**; as, "Father, forgive them."

5. A noun or a pronoun put before a participle as its subject, and not being the subject of any verb, is in the **Nominative Case Absolute**; as, "My father dying, I was left an orphan."

6. In the construction called the Case Absolute, the noun or pronoun is the subject of the participle; and the two words taken together form a dependent clause equivalent to a subject and a verb preceded by a conjunctive adverb. Thus, "Whose grey top shall tremble, he descending;" that is, "*when* he descends."

7. The noun or pronoun in absolute clauses is often omitted. Thus, in the sentence, "Generally speaking, labor is not without its reward," the Nominative Absolute of *speaking* is omitted.

8. The rule for the construction of absolute clauses is violated by putting the subject of the participle in any other case than the nominative. "*Him* dying, I was left an orphan," should be, "*He* dying, I was left an orphan." As the nominative and objective cases of nouns are alike, no false syntax can occur under this rule except in pronouns.

9. Every nominative case, except the case independent, the case absolute, the case of apposition, and the nominative after an intransitive verb, should be the subject of some verb expressed or understood.

10. A noun and its pronoun should not be used as subjects of the same verb; "The day, *it* is clear," should be, "The day is clear."

Parsing consists in stating the grammatical properties and relations of words and the rules of syntax which apply to them.

General Directions for Parsing.

Part of speech, and why; the class, and why; the properties, and why; the relation it holds to any other word or words in the sentence; the rule of syntax applicable.

This form of parsing may be abridged by excluding all reasons. It may be still further abridged by simply giving the use or office of the word in the sentence.

Models for Parsing and Correcting.

"James wrote a letter." "James" is a proper noun, masculine gender, singular number, third person, nominative case, subject of the verb "wrote," according to Rule I. The subject of the verb must be in the nominative case.

"He will write a letter." "He" is a personal pronoun, masc. gen., sing. n., 3d p., nom. case, subject of the verb "will write," according to Rule I. (Quote.)

"To steal will render us liable to punishment." "To steal" is a verb in the infinitive mood used as a noun. It is in the neut. gen., sing. n., 3d p., nom. case, subject of the verb "will render," according to Note 3, Rule I. (Quote the Note.)

"Father, forgive them." "Father" is a com. noun, masc. gen., sing. n., 2d p., and in the nom. case independent, according to Note 4, Rule I. (Quote Note.)

"The sash falling suddenly, his finger was crushed." "Sash" is a com. noun, neut. gen., sing. num., 3d p., and in the nom. case absolute before the participle "falling," according to Note 5, Rule I. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "Him and her are of the same age." *Him* and *her* are here in the objective case. They should be in the nominative, because they are the subjects of the verb "are." The sentence should read, "*He* and *she* are of the same age," according to Rule I. (Quote.)

Correct the sentence, "Solomon was the wisest of men, him only excepted who spake as never man spake!" *Him* is here in the objective case. It should be in the nominative, because it is used absolutely with "excepted." The sentence should read "*he* only excepted," according to Note 5, Rule I. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "The man, he is rich." *He* is superfluous, because it is not needed as the subject of any verb. The sentence should read, "The man is rich," according to Note 10, Rule I. (Quote Note.)

Exercises.

Name the predicates of each of the following sentences. Name the adjectival modifiers of the subjects. Name the adverbial modifiers of the predicates. Parse all the Subjects and Nominatives, correcting the sentences where necessary.

Virtue ennobles the mind, vice debases it.

London is on the Thames.

A good conscience fears nothing.

Him and I could not agree.

They and us agreed to do it.

You and them had a long dispute.

Thomas and me learned the lesson together.

To see the sun is pleasant.

To cultivate the ground gives pleasant occupation.

Show pity, Lord ; O, Lord, forgive.

Oh what a fall was there, my countrymen !

His disease being thoroughly cured, and the busy season having commenced, he should have been at his post.

Napoleon being banished, peace was restored to Europe.

Napoleon, having raised a large army, crossed the Alps.

His character, viewing it in the most charitable manner, is full of blemishes.

Them descending, the ladder fell.

Whom being dead, the hostility ceased.

Him excepted, John was the worst of the party.

This truth, if it had been attended to, the parties would have escaped a great deal of trouble.

The North and the South, Thou hast created them.

Him I accuse has entered.

If the advice is good, take it.

He is great, but truth is greater than us all.

Solomon, who was wiser than them all, built the temple.

None of the people was more beloved than him.

RULE II.

A VERB AGREES WITH ITS SUBJECT IN NUMBER AND PERSON.

NOTES.

1. Rule II. is violated by using the verb in any other number or person than its subject; thus, "They *was* present," should be, "They *were* present."

2. In the Indicative, Subjunctive, and Potential moods, every verb should have a subject expressed, except where two or more verbs are connected in the same construction.

3. A verb in the Infinitive mood has no subject.

4. In the Imperative mood, the subject of the verb is usually omitted, *thou* or *you* being understood.

5. When the subject of the verb is an infinitive mood, or a part of a sentence, the verb should be singular; as, "To skate *is* healthful amusement." "Thou shalt not kill, *is* a divine command." But if there are two or more infinitives, or clauses, making distinct subjects, then the verb should be plural; as, "To skate and to play cricket *are* healthful amusements," "Thou shalt not kill, and Thou shalt not steal, *are* divine commands."

6. When a verb has for its subject a collective noun, the verb should be singular if the idea expressed by the subject is singular, that is, if the assertion is made of the collection as one thing; as, "The class *is* large." But, if the idea expressed by the subject is plural, that is, if the assertion is made of the individuals composing the collection, the verb should be plural; as, "The multitude *pursue* pleasure as their chief good."

7. Some nouns, which are not considered nouns of multitude, are frequently used in the singular form, with a plural meaning; as, "Ten *sail* of the line were seen off the coast." In such cases the verb should be plural.

8. "It," used indefinitely before a verb which has a nominative case after it, is the subject of that verb, and the verb agrees with it, and not with the other subject; thus, "It *is* I," not "It *am* I;" "It *is* they," not "It *are* they."

9. Two or more subjects, connected by *and*, expressed or understood, require a verb in the plural; as, "Socrates and

Plato *were* wise." The verb in such cases should be plural, because the assertion is made of all the subjects. For the same reason, all the nouns and pronouns, representing such subjects, should be plural; as, "Filthiness and bad food are *sources* of disease," not "a *source* of disease."

10. Two or more subjects, connected by *and*, if used to express only one person or thing, require a verb in the singular; as, "That eminent statesman and orator *is* dead."

11. When singular subjects, though connected by *and*, belong to separate propositions, they have a singular verb; as, "The wine, and not the bottle, *was* used." Subjects connected by *and* belong to separate propositions, when accompanied by *each*, *every*, *no*, *not*, or some other disuniting word; as, "*Every* house, *every* grove was burnt," "Good order, and *not* mean savings, produces profits." In the former sentence, the meaning is, "Every house was burnt, every grove was burnt." In the latter, "Good order produces profits, and mean savings do not."

12. Two or more subjects in the singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, require a verb in the singular; as, "Ignorance or prejudice *has* caused the mistake." The verb in such cases should be singular, because the assertion is true of only one of the subjects. For the same reason, all the nouns or pronouns, representing such subjects, should be singular.

13. If any one of several subjects connected by *or* or *nor* is plural, the verb must be plural; as, "Either he or they *were* mistaken."

14. When a verb has subjects of different persons, connected by *and*, the verb agrees with the first person rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third; as, "He and I shared the peach between *us*." "Shared" should be parsed as in the first person.

15. When a verb has subjects of different persons, connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees in person with the subject nearest to it; as, "Either thou or I *am* mistaken," not "Either thou or I *art* mistaken."

Models for Parsing and Correcting.

"James wrote a letter." "Wrote" is a transitive verb, irregular (Pres., write, Past, wrote, Past participle, written),

active voice, indicative mood, past tense, and is in the singular number, third person, to agree with its subject "James," according to Rule II. (Quote the Rule.)

"To play in the mud soils the clothes." "Soils" is a trans. verb, reg., act. v., ind. m., pres. t., 3d p., and in the sing. n., to agree with its subject "to play," a verb in the infinitive mood used as a noun, according to Note 5, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"Thou shalt not steal, is the eighth commandment." "Is" is an int. v., irr. (am, was, been), ind. m., pres. t., 3d p., sing. n., to agree with its subject, "Thou shalt not steal," a part of a sentence used as a noun, according to Note 5, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"The multitude pursue pleasure." "Pursue" is a trans. verb, reg., act. v., ind. m., pres. t., 3d p., and in the pl. n., to agree with its subject "multitude," a collective noun expressing a plural idea, according to Note 6, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"Socrates and Plato were wise." "Were" is an intrans. verb, irr. (am, was, been), ind. m., past t., 3d p., and in the pl. n., because it has two subjects, "Socrates" and "Plato," connected by *and* according to Note 9, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"If that skilful painter and glazier is in town, be sure to employ him." "Is" is an intrans. verb, irr. (am, was, been), ind. m., pres. t., 3d p., and in the sing. n., because its two subjects, "painter" and "glazier," express only one person, according to Note 10, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"Ignorance or prejudice has caused the mistake." "Has caused" is a trans. verb, reg., act. v., ind. m., pres.-perf. t., 3d p., and in the sing. n., because its two subjects, "ignorance" and "prejudice," are in the singular, connected by *or*, according to Note 12, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"He and I shared the peach between us." "Shared" is a trans. verb, reg., act. v., ind. m., past t., in the pl. n., according to Note 9, Rule II. (quote Note), and in the 1st p., according to Note 14, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Note.—Verbs in the Infinitive mood may be parsed for the present as follows :

"James expects to win the prize." "To win" is a trans. verb, irr., (win, won, won), act. v., infin. m., pres. t.

Correct the sentence, "I loves study." *Loves* is here in

the third person. It should be in the first person, to agree with its subject, "I." The sentence should read, "I *love* study," according to Rule II. (Quote.)

Correct the sentence, "The days of man *is* but as grass." *Is* here is in the singular number. It should be plural, because its subject, "days," is plural. The sentence should read, "The days of man *are* but as grass," according to Rule II. (Quote Rule.)

Correct the sentence, "Dear Sir: Have just received your letter." *Have received* is a verb in the indicative mood, without any subject expressed. The sentence should read, "*I* have just received your letter," according to Note 2, under Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "To play in the mud and to walk through the wet grass, *soils* the clothes." *Soils* is here in the singular number. It should be plural because it has for its subject two infinitives, "to play" and "to walk," making two distinct subjects. The sentence should read, "To play in the mud and to walk through the wet grass, *soil* the clothes," according to Note 5, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "The people *has* no opinion of their own." *Has* is here in the singular number. It should be plural because it has for its subject "people," a collective noun expressing a plural idea. The sentence should read, "The people *have* no opinion of their own," according to Note 6, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "Life and death *is* in the power of the tongue." *Is* is singular. It should be plural, because it has two subjects connected by *and*. The sentence should read, "Life and death *are* in the power of the tongue," according to Note 9, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "That distinguished poet, orator, and scholar *are* dead." *Are* is plural. It should be singular, because the subjects "poet," "orator," and "scholar," though connected by *and*, express only one person. The sentence should read, "That distinguished poet, orator, and scholar *is* dead," according to Note 10, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "Neither precept nor discipline *are* so forcible as example." *Are* is plural. It should be singular, because it has two singular subjects connected by *nor*.

The sentence should read, "Neither precept nor discipline *is* so forcible as example," according to Note 12, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "Either I or thou am greatly mistaken." *Am* is in the first person. It should be in the second person, to agree with the nearer subject "thou." The sentence should read, "Either I or thou *art* greatly mistaken," according to Note 15, Rule II. (Quote Note.) . .

Exercises.

Name the subject or subjects in each of the following sentences. Is the predication made of one thing or more than one thing? What single words modify the subject? What part of speech is each? What single words modify the predicate? What part of speech is each? Parse all the Verbs and all the Subjects, correcting the sentences where necessary.

A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye.

A soft answer turn away wrath.

Our most sanguine prospects has often been blasted.

The number of our days are with thee.

A judicious arrangement of studies facilitate improvement.

There was no memoranda kept of the sales.

The number of the inhabitants amount to one million.

Have a sufficient quantity of oats been given to the horse?

Sufficient data was not given, and the solution of the problems were impossible.

Between grammar and logic there exists many connections.

Many means was employed, but no one means were found efficient.

"Oats" are a common noun, of the neuter gender, plural number, and are governed by the preposition "of."

His clothes is torn.

DEAR SIR:—Have just received your letter of yesterday. Am sorry to hear that the books have been sold. Hope to have better luck next time. On the whole, think have not quite all chances of them yet. Very truly yours.

To encourage virtuous actions are praiseworthy.

To love God and keep his commandments, are the whole duty of man.

To eat with unwashed hands, to drink wine, and to eat the flesh of certain animals, is forbidden by the Koran.

Thou shalt love the Lord thy God, is the first and great commandment.

Send the multitude away, that it may go and buy itself bread.

Was you there?

His pulse are beating very fast.

Has the animals been fed?

There was three or four present.

Girls are a common noun.

A committee was appointed to investigate.

In France, the common people goes barefoot.

The public is invited.

Half of the members was absent.

The House was called to order.

8 are what part of 12?

John and Mary was at our house last week.

Neither John nor Mary were at our house last week.

Some people is busy and yet does very little.

Cavalry is not furnished with knapsacks.

The gang contain all the idle and vicious boys of the village.

Congress have adjourned.

The youth of this country is well educated.

The Board of Health have forbidden the vessel to enter the port.

It is the boys of whom I complain.

The sacred Scriptures should be read by all.

The smiles of the mob is easily gained.

Four pair of ducks was brought into the market.

Twenty head of sheep was grazing on the hill.

The time and the place for the conference was agreed upon.

Idleness and ignorance brings sorrow,

Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the golden mediocrity.

Prosperity and adversity is sent to us for wise purposes.

My brother with two friends have arrived.

Nothing but the flag and flagstaff was visible.

A strong argument, and not a loud voice, bring conviction.

Food, and no water, are not sufficient to support life.

Every city, town, and village were depopulated.

There seems to be war, famine, and disease at this time on the earth.

On the tomb is this inscription : " Here lies a statesman and philosopher."

Our parlor and sitting-room were the front room in the second story.

His bread and butter depends upon his exertions.

The house in which I was born, my boyhood's happy home, and the abode of all those whom I hold dear, are now crumbling to dust.

The organ or the piano, when skilfully played, produce delightful music ; but the sound of a drum, or the squeaking of the fife, are discordant.

Neither the secretaries nor the president was to be blamed.

To read or to write were equally difficult to him.

Neither the laws nor the Constitution is sufficient to insure perfect order in the community.

Neither the captain, nor the passengers, nor any of the crew was saved.

In him were found neither deceit, nor any other vice.

Here no longer does my wife or children sit at evening. Neither my house, nor she who was its chief attraction, have been spared by the destroyer, time.

RULE III.

A TRANSITIVE VERB, IN THE ACTIVE VOICE, REQUIRES AN OBJECT IN THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

The noun or pronoun in the objective case is said to be *governed* by the verb.

The object of the verb may be a noun, a pronoun, an infinitive phrase, a participial phrase, or a clause.

The object of a verb is usually placed after the verb.

The object of a transitive verb, whether noun, pronoun, or part of a sentence, is called a modifier or adjunct of the predicate. It is sometimes called the object complement of the verb.

NOTES.

1. Rule III. is violated in four ways, namely: 1. By using the object of the verb in any other case than the objective; "She asked him and I to do it," should be, "She asked him and *me* to do it." 2. By using a transitive verb in the active voice without an object; "He ingratiates with people," should be, "He ingratiates *himself* with people." 3. By inserting a preposition between the verb and its object; "I shall premise with a few observations," should be, "I shall premise a few observations." 4. By using an objective with a verb that is not transitive; "I lie me down to sleep," should be, "I lie down to sleep."

2. A participle of a Transitive verb, in the Active voice, requires an object in the objective case; as, "The boy, having eaten unripe *fruit*, became sick."

3. The Relative Pronoun, when in the objective case, usually precedes the verb by which it is governed; as, "The book *which* you see is mine." Here, "which" is the object of the verb "see," and is placed before it.

4. The verb *to teach* and some few others retain the object in the objective case, even in the passive voice.

In explaining this construction, which is somewhat peculiar in English, though common in Latin, it is necessary to notice

the distinction between the direct and the indirect object of a verb. "He gives the book to me." "Book" is the direct object, "me" is the indirect object. In changing the expression to the passive, the *direct* object becomes the subject; as, "The book is given to me." Now, in the case of the verb "to teach," and some few others, in changing to the passive, the direct object remains in the objective, and the *indirect* object becomes the subject; thus, Active: "He taught grammar to the pupils." In changing this expression to the Passive, the direct object, "grammar," remains in the objective, but the indirect object, "pupils," becomes the subject; thus, Passive: "The pupils were taught grammar." The following are additional examples of this construction: "I was asked a question," "I was denied the privilege," "I was offered a place in the custom-house."

5. The object of the verb is sometimes a verb in the infinitive mood, or a part of a sentence, used as a noun; as, "Boys love to play," "God said, *Let there be light.*"

Models for Parsing and Correcting.

"James wrote a *letter*." "Letter" is a com. noun, n. g., sing. n., 3d p., and is in the obj. c., governed by "wrote," a transitive verb in the active voice, according to Rule III. (Quote.)

"The boy, having eaten unripe *fruit*, became sick." "Fruit" is a com. noun, n. g., sing. n., 3d p., and in the obj. c., governed by the participle "having eaten," according to Note 2, Rule III. (Quote Note.)

"James saw *him*." "Him" is a pers. pronoun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., and in the obj. c., governed by "saw," a trans. v. in the act. v., according to Rule III. (Quote.)

Note.—The parsing of the Pronoun here is complete as far as it goes. But there are other things to be learned concerning it under Rule VIII., before it can be parsed in full.

Correct the sentence, "He and they we know, but who art thou?" *He* and *they* are in the nominative case. They should be in the objective case, because they are the objects of the verb "know." The sentence should read "*Him* and *them* we know, but who art thou?", according to Rule III. (Quote.)

Correct the sentence, "He ingratiates with some by traducing others." *Ingratiates*, a transitive verb, should not be used without an object. The sentence should read, "He ingratiates *himself* with some by traducing others."

Correct the sentence, "I shall premise with a few general observations." The preposition *with* should not be inserted between the transitive verb "premise" and its object "observations." The sentence should read, "I shall premise a few general observations."

Correct the sentence, "I lie me down to sleep." *Lie* an intransitive verb, should not have an object *me*. Either change "lie" to "lay," or omit "me." The sentence should read, "I *lay* me down to sleep," or "I *lie* down to sleep."

Exercises.

Name the subject in each of the following sentences. Name the predicate or verb agreeing with the subject. Which of these verbs are transitive? What is the object of each of these transitive verbs? Parse the Objectives which are the objects of verbs and participles, and all the Subjects and Verbs, correcting the sentences where necessary:

She that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.

The sailors, while exploring the island, found trees bearing delicious fruit. Having eaten a quantity of this fruit, and rested their weary limbs, they continued their journey.

Devotion strengthens virtue.

We ought to disengage from the world by degrees.

A good conscience fears nothing.

Repenting him of his design, he returned to his home.

Application in early life will give ease in old age.

He who committed the offence, thou shouldst punish, not I who am innocent.

It is difficult to agree his conduct with the principles which he professes.

Perseverance in labor will surmount every difficulty.

Wrong acts he suffers with patience.

The child chased after the butterfly.

The waters of the Mississippi flow into the Gulf of Mexico.

The fountains of the great deep were broken up.

Cave canem, translated into English, means "Beware of the dog."

Slow and steady often out-travels haste.

All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy.

Who should I see the other day but my cousin!

Be careful who you trust.

In these cases, custom generally determines.

Yet even the dogs are allowed the crumbs which fall from the master's table.

She sat herself down on the chair.

Go, flee thee away into the land of Judea.

"Chiefs, sages, heroes, bards, and seers,
That live in story and in song,
Time, for the last two thousand years,
Has raised, and shown, and swept along."

RULE IV.

A PREPOSITION REQUIRES AN OBJECT IN THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

The noun or pronoun in the objective case after a preposition is said to be *governed* by the preposition.

The preposition and the word governed by it is called a Prepositional Phrase or an Adjunct. As such it may be either adverbial or adjectival in character, and may modify a verb, an adverb, an adjective, or a noun.

NOTES.

1. A Preposition is usually placed before the word which it governs; as, "He came *to* town."

2. *That*, when used as a relative pronoun, always precedes the preposition by which it is governed; as, "Every book *that* you have referred *to*, is mine." Here "*that*" is governed by the preposition "*to*," and precedes it. If we were to use "*which*" here instead of "*that*," the arrangement would be different; thus, "Every book *to which* you have referred, is mine."

3. *Whom* and *which* sometimes precede the preposition; as, "The person *whom* I travelled *with*." This mode of construction is considered inelegant, especially where the preposition is separated some distance from the word which it governs. The phrase, "The person *whom* I travelled *with*," should read, "The person *with whom* I travelled."

4. The preposition and the word governed by it should be placed as near as possible to the preceding word to which they relate; as, "He was reading in a low voice, when I entered." This is better than saying, "He was reading, when I entered, in a low voice." The words "in a low voice," relate to the act of "reading," and should not unnecessarily be separated from it.

5. Sometimes, in law papers, and other documents of a formal nature, two prepositions govern jointly the same word; as, "He is related *to*, and governed *by*, the same person." Such constructions in other kinds of writing should be avoided. The sentence should read: "He is related to the same person, and is governed by him."

6. It is an objectionable mode of construction to have the same word governed jointly by a transitive verb and a preposition; as, "He was warned *of*, and urged to *avoid*, the danger." It should be, "He was warned of the danger, and urged to avoid it."

7. When a preposition is followed by an adjective without a noun, supply the noun, and parse the preposition accordingly; thus, "Keep to the right," means, "Keep to the right hand."

8. The preposition is frequently omitted, particularly after verbs of *giving* and *procuring*; after adjectives of *likeness* or *nearness*; and before nouns denoting *time*, *place*, *price*, *measure*, etc. When it is practicable to supply the ellipsis, the noun or pronoun is parsed as in the objective, governed by the preposition thus supplied; thus, "Give me a book." "Get me an apple." "Like his father." "Books worth a dollar," meaning, "Give to me a book." "Get for me an apple." "Like to his father," "Books to the worth of a dollar." But when no such preposition can be supplied, we say the noun is in the objective, expressing *time*, *place*, *price*, *measure*, etc., without any governing word.

9. Formerly, the preposition *for* was used before the infinitive mood; as, "What went ye out *for* to see?" This is not allowable now. The sentence should read, "What went ye out to see?"

10. Sometimes one preposition immediately precedes another; as, "*From before* the altar." In such cases the two prepositions should be considered as one, as in the case of compound prepositions such as *upon*, *within*, etc.

11. Sometimes a preposition precedes an adverb; as, *at once*, *for ever*. In such cases, the two words should be taken together, and called an adverb.

12. *At* and *to*. *At* is used after a verb of rest; as, "He resides at Madrid." *To* is used after a verb of motion; as, "He went to Madrid."

13. *Between* and *among*. *Between* refers to two objects, *among* to more than two; as, "There is no difference of opinion between the President and the Vice-President (two), although there is among the members of the Cabinet (more than two)."

14. The following list contains a few of the most common instances of appropriate prepositions:

Absent <i>from</i> .	{ Attribute <i>to</i> (verb).
Access <i>to</i> .	{ Attribute <i>of</i> (noun).
Accused <i>of</i> .	{ Diminished <i>from</i> (a verb).
Acquit <i>of</i> .	{ Diminution <i>of</i> (a noun).
Adapt <i>to</i> .	Betray <i>to</i> a person.
Affection <i>for</i> .	“ <i>into</i> a thing.
Alienate <i>from</i> .	Call <i>on</i> a person.
Alliance <i>with</i> .	“ <i>at</i> a house.
Bestow <i>upon</i> .	“ <i>for</i> a thing.
Comply <i>with</i> .	Confide <i>to</i> (transitive).
Consonant <i>with</i> .	“ <i>in</i> (intransitive).
Depend <i>upon</i> .	Accord <i>to</i> (transitive).
Dissent <i>from</i> .	“ <i>with</i> (intransitive).
Made <i>of</i> .	Compare <i>to</i> (for illustration).
Martyr <i>for</i> .	“ <i>with</i> (for quality).
Need <i>of</i> .	Copy <i>from</i> nature.
True <i>to</i> .	“ <i>after</i> a parent.
{ Agent charged <i>with</i> a thing.	Defend others <i>from</i> .
{ Thing charged <i>on</i> an agent.	“ <i>ourselves against</i> .
{ Avert <i>from</i> (verb).	Die <i>of</i> a disease.
{ Averse <i>to</i> (adjective).	“ <i>by</i> a sword.
Differ <i>with</i> a person in opinion.	Reconcile a person <i>to</i> .
“ <i>from</i> him in character.	“ <i>a thing with</i> .
Agree <i>with</i> a person.	Taste <i>of</i> (actual enjoyment).
“ <i>to</i> a thing.	“ <i>for</i> (capacity for enjoying).

Models for Parsing.

“James wrote a letter to his father.” “To” is a preposition, showing the relation between “wrote” and “father,” and governs “father” in the obj. c., according to Rule IV. (Quote.)

“Father” is a com. noun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., and in the obj. c., governed by the preposition “to,” according to Rule IV. (Quote.)

“God seeth in secret.” “In” is a preposition, showing the relation between “seeth” and “places,” or some such noun understood. The meaning is, “God seeth in secret places.”

Exercises.

Name the prepositions in the following sentences. Name the word governed by each. Name the phrases formed by the

preposition and the word governed by it. State whether adjectival or adverbial in character, and what they modify. Parse all the Prepositions, Subjects, Verbs, and Objectives, correcting the sentences where necessary :

Indolence undermines the foundation of virtue, and unfits a man for the duties of life.

Between you and I, he has no scholarship to boast of.

God, in whom I trust, will protect me.

Confide to real friends only ; confide nothing in him who has once deceived you.

If I compare my penmanship to yours, mine will suffer by the comparison.

Newton, in order to show how little he had accomplished, compared himself with a child picking pebbles on the seashore.

The Indian differs with the Caucasian in color.

I differ with you on this point.

Who did you receive that intelligence from ?

The book, which the story is printed in, is full of pictures.

You have little influence with him.

The fine day was followed by a storm of rain.

Congress consists in a Senate and House of Representatives.

He came of a sudden.

Wanted, a young man to care of some horses of a religious turn of mind.

Whom was the letter sent to ?

Allow me to present you with a purse.

The letter is unworthy your notice.

The delay in the printing renders the progress very slow of the work.

Beyond this period, the arts cannot be traced of civil society.

He is unacquainted with, and cannot speak upon, the subject.

He dwelt upon, and strongly urged, your claims.

I received, but had not time to reply to, your letter.

The book is like its author.

The fountain is near the city.

His mother bought him a top.

The next day they set out early in the morning, and travelled twenty miles.

His health he little thought of.

Wanted, a room for two gentlemen about thirty feet long and twenty feet broad.

Lost, near Highgate Archway, an umbrella belonging to a gentleman with a lost rib and a bone handle.

He was talking, while his class were quietly studying, in a loud voice, when the teacher entered, and spoke to him, with noiseless steps.

Who did you inquire of, at the house which you were sent to, and what did they complain of?

He approved of and voted for this measure.

I have noticed of late that the sky above and the earth beneath wear an appearance of gloom.

I sought in vain for a cheerful spot, and at last gave up in despair.

I will take her for better, for worse.

He addresses himself to the loyal.

Though he was a child only five years old, he showed grown men an example worthy their imitation.

Next her brother, stood a little girl, who asked the boy opposite her place, to lend her his book, but he churlishly refused her this simple request.

The thermometer was two degrees below zero.

He was sent home two weeks sooner than the usual time.

Among a brother and a sister no strife should rise.

Between the many religious sects he was unable to find one suited to his notions of religion.

The army will remain in Washington for a day and then march at the nearest point of attack.

A lot, one hundred feet front and two hundred feet deep, will be sold on Monday.

Keep to the right as the law directs.

Turn neither to the right nor to the left.

He divided his estate between his wife, his son, and his daughter.

His actions do not accord to his preaching; we cannot accord our support with him.

It was difficult to reconcile the mother with the loss of her child; she could not reconcile such an affliction to the goodness of God.

RULE V.

A NOUN OR A PRONOUN IN THE POSSESSIVE CASE IS DEPENDENT UPON THE NOUN SIGNIFYING THE THING POSSESSED.

The noun or pronoun in the possessive is said to be *governed* by the noun signifying the thing possessed.

NOTES.

1. The possessive case is not the only way in which the idea of possession may be expressed. A very common mode of expressing this idea is by using the preposition *of*. Thus, "The house of my father," and "My father's house," express equally the idea of possession. In substituting one of these modes of expression for the other, care should be taken to see that the two expressions have the same meaning. In the expression, "The House of Representatives," "of" does not convey the idea of *possession*, but of *composition*. It means the House of Assembly composed of Representatives.

2. The noun governing the possessive case is often omitted; as, "I bought this slate at the bookseller's," meaning, "at the bookseller's store." In such cases, supply the omission, and parse according to the general rule.

3. In consequence of ellipsis, there is sometimes an appearance of a double possessive; as, "This is a speech of the king's [speeches]." Here, "of" does not denote possession. The meaning is, "This speech is *one of* the king's speeches. In all such instances, the preposition governs the noun understood, and the noun understood governs the possessive.

4. The two modes of expression, "A picture of the king," and "A picture of the king's," never mean the same thing. The noun understood in the latter case is always plural, and the idea is always that of possession. The phrase, "A picture of the king's," implies that this is one of a number of pictures, and that they belong to the king. But the phrase, "A picture of the king," means a portrait of him; no intimation is given of a plurality of pictures, and no idea of possession is implied.

5. In complex names and in complex titles, the sign of the

possessive is placed only at the end, and the whole complex name, or title, is parsed as one word. Thus, "George Washington's farewell address," not "George's Washington's."

6. A complex title sometimes consists of several words, some of which may be different parts of speech, and may have an independent construction of their own; thus, "The captain of the guard's horse was slain." In parsing such a sentence, "of the guard" should be parsed first, each word separately, "guard" being in the objective. Then, "captain of the guard's" should be parsed as one complex title, in the possessive case, governed by "horse." The 's belongs not to "guard," but to the whole expression. These complex titles are sometimes written with a hyphen, as, "commander-in-chief."

7. Where complex titles are used, the idea of possession may be conveyed by using "of," "belonging to," or something similar. This mode of expression in such cases is generally to be preferred to the use of 's. Thus, "The horse belonging to the captain of the guard was slain."

8. When two or more nouns in the possessive are connected, expressing *joint* possession, the sign of the possessive should be placed after the last noun only; as, "The king and queen's marriage." "King" here is to be parsed as the possessive, with the sign of the possessive omitted. If, however, several words intervene between the nouns so connected, the sign of the possessive should be placed after each noun; as, "It was my father's, and also my mother's wish."

9. When two or more nouns in the possessive are connected, expressing *separate* possession, the sign of the possessive should be placed after each of the nouns; as, "Washington's and Cornwallis's troops approached each other."

10. When two nouns, or a noun and a pronoun, are in apposition, the sign of the possessive is often omitted after one of the words; as, "For David thy father's sake." Here David is parsed as in the possessive, the sign of the possessive being omitted. "Here rests *his* head, a *youth* to fortune and to fame unknown." "Youth," here, is in the possessive (the sign of the possessive being omitted), and is in apposition with "his." The meaning is, "The head of him, a youth," etc.

11. Care should be taken not to separate the possessive from

the governing word by inserting explanatory clauses; as, "She extolled the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding." In such cases, the idea of possession should be expressed by "of," or in some similar way. Thus, "She extolled the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him."

12. Certain compound pronouns in the possessive case are sometimes separated; as, "Into *whose* house *soever* you enter." This, however, is to be avoided.

13. The possessive is sometimes governed by a participle used as a noun; as, "The cause of John's forgetting the lesson was his anxiety about the excursion." Here, "John's" is in the possessive case, governed by the participle "forgetting" used as a noun. It would not be correct to put "John" in the objective case governed by "of." "Of," here governs "forgetting," not "John." "The cause of *John* forgetting the lesson," should be, "The cause of *John's* forgetting the lesson." "The cause of *him* not doing it," should be, "The cause of *his* not doing it."

Models for Parsing.

"James wrote a letter by his father's permission." "Father's" is a com. noun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., and in the poss. c., governed by "permission," according to Rule V. (Quote.)

"George Washington's Farewell Address has just been read." "George Washington's," a complex name, is a prop. noun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., poss. c., governed by "Address" according to Rule V. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Name all the nouns in the following sentences that are in the possessive case. Name all the subjects and predicates. Name the single word modifiers of each. How used? Name the phrase modifiers of each. How used? Parse all the Possessives, Subjects, Verbs, Objectives, and Prepositions, correcting the sentences wherever necessary:

A man's manners often make his fortune.

Asa's heart was perfect in the Lord's sight.

Helen's beauty caused the destruction of Troy.

The Representatives' House adjourned on the fifth of June.

The Lord's day will come as a thief in the night.

This is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's.

The Archbishop of Baltimore's letter was published in the daily papers.

William and Mary's reign was one of the most distinguished in English history.

John's and Mary's bookcase is filled, partly with his books, and partly with hers.

John and Mary's bookcases are both filled with books.

William and Lucy's cloaks were lost.

The Princeton and the Raritan's crews are now both complete.

If he learn any trade, it should be his father's.

He was tried at the magistrate's for stealing a parcel of rings at the jeweller's.

The painting of Christ Healing the Sick is a picture of West.

There are many pictures of Washington's on tavern signs.

The farewell address of Washington's was read on the anniversary of his death.

It was the Sergeant-at-arm's duty to execute the Speaker of the House of Representatives' order.

The Archbishop of Canterbury's opinion was preferred to the Archbishop of York's.

Men and women's shoes are made very differently.

Paul's, the Apostle's, letter to the Hebrews.

For Herodias' sake, his brother Philip's wife.

The captain and the lieutenant's swords were much alike in appearance.

Scott's and Butler's store was destroyed by the fire, and all the goods belonging to the firm were burned.

No one ever doubted Mad Anthony's, as he was called, bravery and skill.

They divided their time between the milliner's shop and the candy stalls.

I will not do it for twenties sake.

Then Jethro, Moses' father-in-law, took Zipporah.

Were John and Mary's clothes taken?

Peter's, John's, and Andrew's occupation was that of fishermen.

RULE VI.

A NOUN OR A PRONOUN IN APPPOSITION WITH ANOTHER AGREES WITH IT IN CASE.

NOTES.

1. A word is said to be in apposition with another when it is used to explain the other, or when it is repeated for emphasis; as, "Smith, the *bookseller*, lives in that house." "Cisterns, broken *cisterns*, that can hold no water." "We, the *people* of the United States."

2. The words in apposition may be in any case, nominative, possessive, or objective.

3. When a word is in apposition with another in the possessive case, the sign of the possessive is sometimes omitted.

"This is the wandering wood, this Error's den,
A *monster* vile, whom God and man do hate."

"Monster," here, is in the possessive case, the sign of the possessive being omitted, and is in apposition with "Error's."

4. A noun may be put in apposition with a whole sentence; as, "He promptly acceded to my request, an act which redounds greatly to his honor." "Act" is here nominative, in apposition with the whole of the preceding sentence.

5. When several words form one proper name, as, "Thomas Jefferson," these words are in apposition, but they should be parsed together as one complex noun. In forming the plural number, or the possessive case, of such complex names, the sign should be put only at the end; as, "The country has not had two Thomas Jeffersons;" "Thomas Jefferson's works."

6. When a proper name has a title prefixed, as, "General Greene," "Dr. Rush," "Mr. Stockton," the words are in apposition, but they should be parsed together as one complex noun. In forming the plural of such complex names, if, besides the article, there is a numeral adjective prefixed, the *last* word only should be plural; as, "The two Mr. *Stocktons*." But if there is no numeral prefixed, the *title* only should be plural; as, "The *Messrs.* Stockton," "The *Misses* Stockton."

7. One of the most frequent instances of apposition is where the proper noun of an object is appended to its common name;

as, "The river Delaware," "The poet Tennyson," "The steam-boat Philadelphia." It is a peculiarity of the English language that the proper names of *places*, when so appended, are not in apposition, but are put in the objective and governed by "of;" as, "The city *of* Philadelphia."

8. The phrases, "They love one another," "They love each other," etc., afford instances of apposition that very frequently occur. In the first of these examples, "one" is in the nominative, and is in apposition with "they;" and "another" is in the objective, governed by "love." The meaning is "One loves another."

Model for Parsing.

In the following sentences, name the word in apposition and the word which it explains. The word in apposition is a modifier or adjunct of the word explained. In what particular does the latter agree with the former? Does it agree in gender? Number? Person?

"James wrote a letter to his brother John." "John" is a prop. noun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., obj. c., in apposition with the noun "brother," according to Rule VI. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Name the subject and the predicate in each of the following sentences. Name all the modifiers (single words and phrases) of each. Parse the Nouns and Pronouns in Apposition, and all the Subjects, Verbs, Possessives, Objectives, and Prepositions, correcting the sentences where necessary:

Alexander, the coppersmith, did me great harm.

Harrisburg, the capital of Pennsylvania, lies on the bank of the Susquehanna.

The knife was given to me by my brother James, he that was here last week.

Mr. Dale, the carpenter, him whom you saw here yesterday, is dead.

There are eight Kings Henry in English history.

The hare is beset by death in various forms, snares, dogs, and the hunter's gun.

Webster, the orator, was from the same State that honored Sumner, the philanthropist.

The acts of Daniel, the prophet, David the psalmist, Moses the law-giver, and Paul the apostle, are all recorded in the Bible, the book of books.

Ye men of Israel, why stand ye looking up?

My old friend, he who is often styled faithful John, is with me.

Come, let us make a covenant, thee and me.

I met a fool, a crazy fool, in the streets, selling pictures, the works of his own idle fancy.

They destroyed the vessel and returned without losing a single man, an exploit which was highly creditable.

He was playing ball, an amusement of which boys are very fond.

We Americans call England our mother country.

I have two aunts Mary.

RULE VII.

THE VERB TO BE HAS THE SAME CASE AFTER IT AS BEFORE IT.

NOTES.

1. The noun or pronoun after the verb *to be* is not in apposition with the noun or pronoun before it, but is a part of the predicate of the verb; as, "James is *commander* of the troops." "Commander" should be parsed as nominative after the verb *is*, and forming a part of the predicate. As a part of the predicate, the words so used after the verb *to be* are considered adjuncts or modifiers of the predicate.

2. This rule applies also to the verb *become* and to several other intransitive verbs, and also to the passive voice of some transitive verbs, such as *to be named*, *to be called*, etc.

3. The verb *to be* in the infinitive mood used as a noun may have a noun or a pronoun after it without any other noun before it; as, "To be a good *man*, is not so easy a thing as many people imagine." Here, "man" should be parsed as used indefinitely after the verb *to be*, without saying what its case is. The infinitive mood of many other intransitive verbs, and the infinitive passive of some transitive verbs, may also have a noun or a pronoun after them used indefinitely; as, "To live a consistent *Christian* is not easy," "To be called a *Roman* was counted a great honor."

Model for Parsing.

"James is commander of the troops." "Commander" is a com. noun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., nom., c. after the verb "is," and forming a part of the predicate, according to Rule VII. (Quote.)

Exercises.

What words in the following sentences have the same case as the word before the verb? Name the subject and predicate in each sentence. What words or phrases modify each subject and predicate? In each sentence, parse the Nouns and Pronouns after the verb in the same case as the noun or pronoun before it, and all the Subjects, Verbs, Possessives, Objectives, and Prepositions, correcting the sentences where necessary:

Thomson, the author of "The Seasons," is a delightful poet.

The Senate caused Scylla to be proclaimed Dictator.

Education, the great civilizer, is the best safeguard of that blood-bought blessing, liberty.

This is Arnold's grave, that vile traitor who sold his country for money.

Godliness with contentment are great gain.

Wine has been his ruin. He entered manhood a pattern of sobriety, but died a miserable sot.

When I reign king, thou shalt be my slave.

Solomon is counted the wisest man of all ages.

The carriage was returned a perfect wreck.

To die a Christian is more desirable than to reign king.

To live a coward accords better with some persons' inclination, than to leave the world a hero.

Who do you think me to be?

It is me.

It is your general.

Whom do men say, that I, the son of man, am?

It is us that they seek to punish.

He is very wicked.

Aaron Burr was not honorable.

The sailor was called a hero.

Lincoln was elected President.

It is said that money is the root of all evil.

RULE VIII.

A PRONOUN AGREES WITH THE NOUN OR THE PRONOUN FOR WHICH IT STANDS, IN GENDER, NUMBER, AND PERSON.

NOTES.

1. When a Pronoun stands for a Collective noun, the pronoun should be singular if the idea expressed by the noun is singular, and should be in the neuter gender; as, "The class is too large; *it* must be divided." But if the idea expressed by the noun is plural, the pronoun should be plural; as, "Send the multitude away that *they* may buy themselves bread."

2. When a pronoun stands for two or more words, connected by *and*, the pronoun should be plural. Thus, "William and Mary were both there; I saw *them*." "He and Mary were both there; I saw *them*." "He and she were both there; I saw *them*." "Them" in the first example stands for two nouns; in the second for a noun and a pronoun; in the third for two pronouns.

3. When a pronoun stands for two or more words connected by *and*, but used to express only one subject, the pronoun should be singular. Thus, "He knew his Lord and Saviour, and loved *Him*."

4. When a pronoun stands for two or more words, in the singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, the pronoun should be singular. Thus, "Either play or work is injurious, if *it* is carried to excess." If one of the words connected by *or* or *nor* is plural, the pronoun should be plural; as, "Neither the captain nor the men knew of *their* danger."

5. When a pronoun stands for two or more words, connected by *and*, but of different persons, the pronoun agrees with the first person rather than with the second, and with the second rather than with the third. Thus, "William and I had *our* skates with *us*." "Our" and "us" are plural, because they stand for two subjects, "William" and "I." But one of these subjects, "William," being in the third person, and the other "I," being in the first person, the pronoun which stands for both must be in the first person. We would not express the meaning if we were to say, "William and I had *their* skates with *them*."

6. When a pronoun stands for two or more words, connected by *and*, but of different genders, the gender of the pronoun is indeterminate, and must be omitted in parsing; as, "I saw the man and his portrait side by side, and I could hardly tell *them* apart, so great was the likeness." Here, "*them*" stands for "man" (masc.) and "portrait" (neuter); the gender of "*them*" therefore cannot be determined.

7. Words of different genders or persons, connected by *or* or *nor*, cannot be correctly represented by a single pronoun. Thus, "Mary or William has lost — book." We cannot supply the blank with *her*, *his*, or *their*. Again, "He or I have lost — book." We cannot supply the blank with *his*, *my*, *their*, or *our*.

8. A pronoun may stand for an infinitive mood; as, "To contradict may be rude, but *it* is not criminal." A pronoun may stand also for a part of a sentence; as, "He is very witty, but unfortunately he is aware of *it*." The pronoun in such cases should be in the neuter gender, singular number, and third person. But if there are two or more infinitives, or clauses, making distinct subjects, then the pronoun should be plural; as, "To be temperate, and to use exercise in the open air, are good preservatives of health, but *they* are not infallible."

9. The pronoun *it* is sometimes used indefinitely, that is, without standing for any particular noun. Thus, "Come and trip *it* as you go," "*It* rains," "*It* was he that did it."

10. The gender of a noun is sometimes changed by personification. In such instances, a similar change occurs in the gender of the pronoun; as, "The ship had lost *her* anchor."

11. *We* frequently, and *you* generally, are used to represent the singular. It is improper in such cases to change the construction during the progress of a sentence; as, "*You* were true to me in the day of trouble, and *thy* kindness I can never forget." It should be either "thou" and "thy," or "you" and "your."

12. *Who* is used in referring to persons; *Which* is used in referring to inferior animals, to things without life, to infants, to collective nouns expressing a singular idea, and to persons in asking questions where the particular individual is inquired

for. "Which" was formerly applied to persons as well as things; as, "Our Father, *which* art in heaven."

13. *That* is used instead of *Who* or *Which* in the following cases:

(1) After two antecedents, one requiring *who*, and the other requiring *which*; as, "The *man* and the *house* *that* we saw yesterday."

(2) After the *Superlative*; as, "It is the *best* book *that* can be got."

(3) After *Same*; as, "He is the *same* kind-hearted man *that* he used to be."

(4) After *All*, or any similar antecedent expressing a general meaning, limited by the following verb; as, "*All that* heard me can testify."

(5) After *Who*, used interrogatively, as, "*Who, that* has seen anything of human nature, can believe it?"

(6) After *It*, used indefinitely; as, "*It was* he *that* did it."

14. When the relative has two antecedents, of different persons, one before and the other after the verb *to be*, the relative agrees in person with the nearer; as, "I am the man *who* commands you." Where a different meaning is intended, the relative should be placed nearer the first antecedent; as, "I, *who* command you, am the man."

15. The relative should be placed near its antecedent to prevent ambiguity; thus, "The *boy* beat his friend, *whom* everybody believed incapable of doing mischief," should be, "The *boy, whom* everybody believed incapable of doing mischief, beat his friend."

16. The relative is sometimes omitted; as, "The letter you wrote me on Saturday, came duly to hand," meaning, "The letter which you wrote me."

17. The antecedent is sometimes omitted; as, "Who lives to nature, rarely can be poor," meaning, "The person who lives."

18. *What* is sometimes apparently used as an adverb, but in all such cases the ellipsis can be supplied; as, "What doth it profit a man?" that is, "In what respect doth it profit a man?"

19. *What* should not be used for the conjunction *that*. Thus,

"I don't know but *what* I shall go," should be, "I don't know but *that* I shall go."

Whichsoever, whatsoever, etc., are sometimes written as two words with other words intervening; as, "*which* side *soever*." In parsing, the two parts of the word should be taken together as one word.

20. The part of the sentence introduced by a relative pronoun is called a relative clause.

Models for Parsing.

"John, who was at school, wrote a letter to his father." "Who" is a rel. pron., relating to its antecedent, "John," masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., to agree with "John," according to Rule VIII. (quote), and is in the nom. c., subject of the verb "was," according to Rule I. (Quote.)

"The class is too large; it must be divided." "It" is a pers. pron., n. g., and in the sing. n., 3d p., to agree with "class," a collective noun expressing a singular idea, according to Rule VIII., Note 1 (quote Note), and is in the nom. c., subject of the verb "must be divided," according to Rule I. (Quote.)

"William and I had our skates with us." "Us" is a pers. pron., standing for "William" and "I," two words of different persons; it is therefore in the 1st p., according to Note 5, Rule VIII. (quote Note), pl. n., according to Note 2, Rule VIII. (quote Note), and obj. c., governed by the preposition "with," according to Rule IV. (Quote.)

"The man and the house that we saw yesterday." "That" is a rel. pron., relating to the two antecedents, "man" and "house," and used instead of "who" or "which," according to Note 13, Rule VIII. (quote Note), pl. n., according to Note 2, Rule VIII. (quote Note), and obj. c., governed by the verb "saw," according to Rule III. (Quote.)

"Give me what I want." "What" is a rel. pron., and relates to the object of "give," understood. It is in the n. g., sing. n., 3d p., and is in the obj. c., object of the verb "want," according to Rule III. (Quote.)

Exercises.

In the following sentences, name the pronouns. To which class of pronouns does each belong? Name the gender, num-

ber, person, and case of each of the personal pronouns. Name the antecedent of each of the personal pronouns. Name the clause which is introduced by each relative pronoun. In relation to each clause, state whether it is used in an adjectival sense, in an adverbial sense, or as a substantive or noun. Divide each of the sentences containing a relative pronoun into two or more separate sentences. Parse all the Pronouns, Subjects, Verbs, Possessives, Objectives, and Prepositions, correcting the sentences where necessary :

He only who is active and industrious can experience real pleasure.

He who is a stranger to industry may possess wealth, but he cannot enjoy it.

Trust not him whose friendship is bought with gold.

[Supply relatives]. Here is a bird's nest — I found in the woods. — is made of straw and moss, — the old birds find in the fields.

The multitude seek pleasure as its chief good.

The Board of Education has just published their annual report.

If your rudeness and noise continue, it will effectually hinder you from gaining any benefit.

A lampoon or a satire do not carry in them robbery or murder.

The family of Adam include the whole human race ; you and I are a part of them.

The silent circle fans itself in-doors, while the coachman without is famished with cold.

It appears to have been John and James who were guilty.

What is it that vexes you ?

The moon shed her pale light over the landscape.

Lay up in thy heart what you have now heard.

Do unto others as thou wouldst have them do unto you.

The army had marched many miles and were resting quietly, when they were surprised by the enemy.

[Supply relatives.] The ship — I saw had a cargo — was very valuable ; its captain was a man — every member of the crew obeyed, though — was composed of men of the worst character.

Who, who ever had a man or a beast, which served him faithfully, would say, it is they who should thank me; I have nothing for which to feel grateful.

Solomon was the wisest man whom the world ever saw.

It is the same picture which you saw before.

All which beauty, all which wealth e'er gave.

Who, who has any sense of religion, will argue thus?

The lady and the lapdog which we saw in the window.

The king dismissed his minister without any inquiry, who had never before been guilty of so unjust an action.

The tiger is a beast of prey who destroys without pity.

This is the friend which I love.

This is the vice whom I hate.

The infant whom you see in the cradle is sick.

Who of those men came to his assistance?

Thou art the man who has done the crime, and I who suffers the penalty, am innocent.

Take that book to the library, which I left on my table.

There was a bird caught by the fox, which was web-footed.

The criminal was hung by the sheriff, who committed this shocking murder.

That officer was selected to arrest the thief, in whom the Mayor placed the utmost confidence.

This soldier was never rewarded by his captain, who was the bravest private in his company, because he differed with him in politics.

Whatsoever he doeth shall prosper.

[Supply antecedent.] Who steals my purse, steals trash.

A man who is virtuous will be honored.

[Supply relative.] The house you live in was built fifty years ago.

The prize, which you won, shall be given you.

Baltimore, in which you live, is a city of the first class.

Whoever forgets a benefit is an enemy to society.

I see that you have attended to the business.

He said that he would succeed.

That he would succeed was evident to all who knew him.

[Supply relatives.] The house I live in and the furniture it contains are the products of the industry of the many toilsome hours I spent in active business.

[Supply antecedent.] Who tempers the wind to the shorn lamb, will take care of me.

[Supply antecedent.] Whom I respect I obey, not those I have no confidence in.

The legislature holds its meetings in Harrisburg; my brother is a member of it.

Either my father, or any other man could have had the right to express their opinions.

Hunger or thirst I can bear; they give pain to the body; but the pangs of a guilty conscience I cannot bear.

She or Mary must have left their candle burning.

The jury were divided in their opinion.

RULE IX.

AN ARTICLE MODIFIES THE NOUN TO WHICH IT RELATES.

NOTES.

1. The noun to which the article relates is sometimes omitted; as, "Turn neither to the right nor to the left," meaning, "Turn neither to the right hand nor to the left hand." In such cases, supply the noun, and parse the article according to the Rule, as modifying the noun thus supplied.

2. If there is an adjective before the noun, the article must precede the adjective; as, "A virtuous man," not "Virtuous a man." If the adjective before the noun is *all*, *such*, *many*, *what*, or *both*, or if the adjective is preceded by *too*, *so*, *as*, or *how*, the article must come after the adjective; as, "All the men," "Such a sight," "Too serious an undertaking."

3. When two or more connected adjectives relate to the same word, the article is used before the first adjective only; as, "A red and white flag," meaning one flag, partly red and partly white. But, when the adjectives relate to different words, the article is used before each adjective; as, "A red and a white flag," meaning two flags, one red and one white.

4. In using the comparative with *than*, if the nouns before and after "than" both refer to the same word, the article should be used before the first noun only; as, "He is a better speaker than writer;" but, if the nouns refer to different words, the article should be used before each noun; as, "A man makes a better soldier than a woman."

5. *A* or *an* is used with nouns in the singular number only; as, "A man." The exceptions to this are apparent rather than real. Thus, "A few things," means a certain number of things, and not more; "A thousand men" means one thousand of men, and not two thousand. The *a* should be parsed as relating to the words "few," and "thousand," used as nouns in the singular, and the word following governed by *of* understood.

6. A marked difference of meaning is produced by the use or the omission of *a* before the words *few* and *little*. "He has *a* little decency," means he has at least *some*." "He has *little* decency," intimates a doubt whether he has *any*.

7. *A* is often an abbreviation for some other short word, such as *at, in, on*; as, "His greatness is a ripening." In such cases the *a* is not an article, but a preposition, and is to be parsed accordingly.

8. "*The more* you examine the book, *the better* you will like it." In such expressions, the article must be parsed as limiting the adverb.

9. The article should be used before each of two or more nouns connected by *or* or *nor*; as, "*Either* the teacher *or* the pupil was in fault."

Model for Parsing.

"James writes a letter." "A" is the ind. art., and relates to the noun "letter," according to Rule IX. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Name the subject and the predicate in each of the following sentences. Name the modifiers of each. Add clauses to each of the subjects. Parse all the Articles, Pronouns, Subjects, Verbs, Possessives, and Objectives, correcting the sentences where necessary :

At first the enemy gave way, but afterward he repulsed the left of our line.

Time destroys both the great and the small.

Glory to God in the highest.

A too severe discipline is tyranny.

The banner of the United States is a red, a white, and a blue flag.

Fire is a better servant than a master.

He is a better poet than a historian.

A rosy-faced and pale girl were seen on the right of the room.

Truth is a mightier weapon than sword.

Disease is a greater destroyer than earthquake.

Mr. C., having tried the stage and pulpit, was found to be a better minister than an actor.

He had a few pupils, who came twice a week to receive his lessons. They preferred this to going a hunting,

The louder he spoke, the less he was heard, and the noise made by the audience became the greater.

He who uses profane language has a little decency.

He who merely is ashamed of soiled clothes, shows thereby that he has little decency.

He was such a tyrant that a few persons mourned at his death.

As everybody knew him to be a thief, a few persons intrusted their goods to him.

Neither the Old nor the New Testaments contain the remark which you have quoted.

That figure is a sphere, a globe, or a ball.

What sort of a thing is it?

Is that ribbon in a good taste?

He lives in the midst of a thick woods, and you will be compelled to go a great distance in order to find him.

Not a word was spoken, nor hint given.

There are two voices, the Active and Passive.

The light and the worthless kernels will not grow.

RULE X.

AN ADJECTIVE MODIFIES THE NOUN OR THE PRONOUN TO WHICH IT RELATES.

NOTES.

1. The noun to which the adjective relates is sometimes omitted; as, "Of many evils, choose the least," meaning, "Of many evils, choose the least evil." In such cases, supply the omission, and parse the adjective according to the Rule, as relating to the noun thus supplied.

2. An adjective sometimes modifies an infinitive mood, or a part of a sentence, used as a noun; as, "To use profane language is both *foolish* and *wicked*." In such cases the adjective should be parsed as relating to the infinitive mood, or to the part of a sentence used as a noun.

3. The infinitive mood or the participle is sometimes found with an adjective after it not modifying any particular noun, but used indefinitely; as, "To be *good* is the surest way of being *happy*." "Good," here, is to be parsed by saying that it is an adjective used indefinitely after the infinitive. In like manner, "happy" is used indefinitely after the participle.

4. When an adjective expresses any number more than one, the noun or pronoun to which it relates must be plural; as, "Ten pounds," not "Ten pound." Some nouns, however, have a plural meaning with a singular form; as, "Ten sail of the line." In such instances the plural form of the noun is not required.

5. When two adjectives precede a noun, both expressing number, one of them may express the idea of unity, the other that of plurality; as, "One hundred men," "The first ten lines." In these instances, the several things are considered in their aggregate capacity, as forming one whole. The rule of construction is to use the singular adjective before the plural one; as, "The first ten lines," not "The ten first lines."

6. By an idiom of the English language, *many* is sometimes used before the singular with *a* prefixed; as, "Many a flower."

7. The comparative degree refers to two objects, the super-

lative to more than two; as, "John is the *taller* of the two," "James is the *tallest* of the three boys."

8. The comparative considers the objects compared as belonging to different classes; as, "Eve was fairer than any of *her daughters*." The superlative considers the objects as belonging to one class; as, "Eve was the fairest of *women*."

9. Double comparatives and superlatives are improper. Thus, "A worser man," should be, "A worse man;" "The most politest boy," should be, "The politest boy."

10. Some adjectives express a quality incapable of increase or diminution; as, *chief*, *extreme*, *universal*. In such cases, the comparative and superlative terminations should not be used.

11. Adjectives should not be used for adverbs, that is, to modify verbs, adverbs, or other adjectives. "He speaks correct," should be, "He speaks correctly;" "A sufficient long time," should be, "A sufficiently long time;" "He came remarkable soon," should be, "He came remarkably soon."

12. Sometimes the adjective seems to modify a verb; as, "The egg is boiled *hard*," "The apple tastes *sweet*," "The board looks *smooth*, but it is rough." Here the meaning is, "The egg is boiled until it is hard;" "The apple tastes as if it were sweet;" "The board looks as if it were smooth." As the quality is thus connected with the preceding noun or pronoun, the word is an adjective, and should be so parsed.

13. In poetry, an adjective is sometimes used in the sense of an adverb; as, "*Slow* rises merit when by poverty oppressed." In these cases, the word is an adverb, and should be so parsed.

14. An adjective is sometimes used as a noun; as, "None but the *brave* deserve the *fair*;" "All partial *evil* is but universal *good*."

Model for Parsing.

"James wrote a long letter." "Long" is an adj., in the pos. deg. ("long, longer, longest"), and modifies the noun "letter," to which it relates, according to Rule X. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Name the subject and predicate in each of the following sentences. Name the single words which modify the subjects.

Name such as modify other nouns, not used as subjects. Name the phrases found in the sentences. How used? Name the pronouns, and state the attributes of each. Name the clauses. Parse all the Adjectives, Articles, Pronouns, Subjects, Verbs, Possessives, and Objectives, correcting the sentences where necessary :

A great reward has been offered for the detection of the criminal.

The best men are liable to occasional infirmities of temper.

To err is human, to forgive, divine.

They left me happy on the rivers' brink.

The notary public resides on Green Street.

Iron is more useful than all the metals.

The likeness is remarkable.

That is a remarkable good likeness which you see on the wall.

His insolence was most insufferable.

Now Israel loved Joseph more than all his children, because he was the son of his old age.

Of all other writers, he was the least understood.

To repine at the prosperity of others is despicable.

To be ever active in laudable pursuits is highly meritorious.

There are six foot of water in the hold.

Rhode Island is the smaller of the United States.

Spain at one time possessed a greater commerce than any nation in Europe.

The tongue is like a race-horse, which runs the faster the lesser weight it carries.

Sing the three first and the last stanzas of the hymn.

There is no more universal sentiment than this.

Virtue confers the supremest dignity on man.

He writes elegant. She sings sweet.

To drink wine to excess is destructive of health.

To practise virtue is more acceptable to God than the sacrifice of bullocks or of rams.

To be wise to-day is the way to commence to be wise.

To remain ignorant in a land like ours is inexcusable.

The evil that men do lives after them ; the good is often buried with them.

The vain, the wealthy, and the proud, are not the proper persons to be imitated.

"Then give Humility a coach and six."

That style of dress is more admired by some than this. Let each lady indulge their own taste.

Those who go to war must expect to suffer many privations; some will die, and others lose their limbs.

Every station in life has its cares.

The hay is sufficient for ten heads of horses, allowing twenty pound to each horse.

The ten first men marched two by two.

Consumption is the most destructive of the other diseases, and more common than any disease in the United States.

Walls of solid granite are no adequate protection against the enginery of modern warfare.

What do you ask for them peaches?

This ribbon is more white than the other.

She spoke in the most kindest manner.

Which is the largest number, the dividend or the quotient?

The two first rows of seats are reserved for the officers.

The three last mails brought me no news.

Bessie bought a new pair of gloves.

China has the greater population of any nation.

Which can run the fastest, your boy or mine?

An old pair of shoes were found on the highway.

RULE XI.

AN ADJECTIVE PRONOUN MODIFIES THE NOUN OR THE PRONOUN TO WHICH IT RELATES.

NOTES.

1. The Distributives and Demonstratives agree in number with the nouns to which they relate; as, "*This* sort of persons," not "These sort." The distributives, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, are all singular. Of the demonstratives, *this* and *that* are singular, *these* and *those* plural.

2. The personal pronoun should not be used for the adjective pronoun; as, "Those books," not "*Them* books."

3. *Either* is sometimes used improperly for *each*; as, "Nadab and Abihu took *either* of them his censer." Grammatically, this means that only one of them took a censer, whereas, the meaning intended is that they both did so. It should be "*each*."

4. The noun is often omitted after adjective pronouns; as, "Let each do his duty," meaning, "Let each man do his duty." In such cases supply the noun, and parse as usual.

5. *None*, according to its composition, is singular, meaning *no one*, yet it sometimes represents nouns in the plural as well as in the singular; as, "We hunted for berries, but found *none*." *None* is never used except when the noun to which it belongs is omitted.

Model for Parsing.

"James wrote this letter." "This" is a dem. adj. pron., relating to "letter," according to Rule XI. (quote), and is in the singular number, to agree with "letter," according to Note 1, Rule XI. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Name the subject and predicate in each of the following sentences. Name the single words which modify the subjects. Name such as modify other nouns not used as subjects. Which of these are adjective pronouns or pronominal adjectives? Name the phrases found in these sentences. How

used ? Parse all the Adjective Pronouns, Articles, Adjectives, Subjects, Verbs, Possessives, Objectives, Pronouns, and Prepositions, correcting the sentences where necessary :

Either of the men have the necessary qualification.

Each of the boys had their books with them.

Many of the men were hurt, but none were killed.

Those men only are great who are good.

Those men who despise the admonitions of their friends deserve the evils which their own obstinacy brings upon them.

Those kind of efforts are spasmodic.

Neither of these five verbs can be neuter.

Here are five apples, take either of them.

Give the grocer the memoranda, and tell him those molasses bought yesterday was not the kind I asked for.

Those sort of people fear nothing.

Who broke this scissors ?

He adhered strictly to his profession, and by those means gained success.

Virtue and vice are as opposite to each other as light and darkness ; this ennobles the mind, that debases it.

Them kind of favors did real injury.

The king of Israel and the king of Judah sat either of them on his throne.

Such as are diligent will be rewarded.

Some are naturally timid, others are bold and active.

Give to each his own.

This oats is of those species called wild oats.

These sort of vegetable productions are considered mere weeds.

In the Bible, tares and wheat are used to represent different kinds of men ; that, to denote the good, and this, the bad.

Either side of that square field is of the same length as the three others.

Some whom I considered my enemies assisted, while none really pitied me ; each one who rendered me assistance, did so because their conscience, and not their love for me, prompted them.

The smallest of the twins seemed the more intelligent of the two children.

Samuel was the strongest of the two brothers, and Mary the neater of the other members of the family.

It would be a queer world, if every one might do as they like.

The silence of nature is more impressive, would we understand it, than any speech could be: it expresses what no speech can utter.

The greatness of a gift cannot be determined by its absolute amount: it can be truly ascertained only by a moral standard.

RULE XII.

A PARTICIPLE MODIFIES THE NOUN OR THE PRONOUN TO WHICH IT RELATES.

NOTES.

1. The participle is often used as a noun, either in the nominative or in the objective case; as, "*Writing* letters is easier than writing compositions" (nom); "In *writing* letters he soon became expert" (obj.). In these instances, the participle, as a part of the verb, retains its government of the objective.

2. The participle used as a noun, is frequently found governing another noun in the possessive case; as, "Much depends on *John's* writing his letters rapidly."

3. The participle is sometimes used as a noun merely; as, "Avoid foolish *talking* and *jesting*." When so used, parse the word simply as a noun in the third person, neuter gender.

4. The participle is sometimes used simply as an adjective; as, "*Singing* birds abound in summer," "He is a *learned* man." When a participle is so used, call it a participial adjective, and parse it as any other adjective.

5. When a participial noun has an article before it, it should have "of" after it; as, "*The* learning of Greek," not "*The* learning Greek." In such sentences, the article and the preposition should either both be used, or both omitted. The latter is by far the more common.

6. When the article and the preposition are both used in connection with a participial noun, the meaning is usually the same as when they are both omitted. Thus, "*The* learning of languages," means the same as "learning languages." This, however, is not always the case; as, "He confessed the whole in *the hearing* of three witnesses," "The court spent an hour *in hearing* the witnesses." It is perhaps impossible to give a rule which shall direct in all cases when to use and when to omit the article and the preposition.

7. A participle of the verb *to be* may have a noun or a pronoun after it in the same case as the one before it; as, "Thomas, being an apt *scholar*, won the favor of his teacher." This rule applies also to the participles of many other intransi-

tive verbs, and likewise to the participles of the passive voice of some transitive verbs; as, "Solomon, while reigning *king*, built the temple," "Washington, being appointed *commander-in-chief*, proceeded at once to Cambridge."

8. A participle of the verb *to be*, when used as a participial noun, may have a noun after it used indefinitely; as, "His being a good *penman* soon gained him employment." Here, "penman" is not the subject of "gained," nor is it in apposition with anything understood before "being," but is used indefinitely after the participle "being." This rule applies also to the participles of many other intransitive verbs, and likewise to the participles of the passive voice of some transitive verbs; as, "Living a consistent *Christian* is not easy," "Being called a *Roman* was counted a great honor."

9. A participle may be used indefinitely after the infinitive of the verb *to be*, used as a noun; as, "To be forever in one place, *doing* nothing, would be intolerable." "Doing," here, relates to no noun, but is used indefinitely. This rule applies also to participles after the infinitive mood of many other intransitive verbs, and likewise to some transitive verbs in the passive voice; as, "To remain *doing* nothing would be intolerable," "To be found *stealing* is a disgrace."

10. When the noun to which a participle relates is in the nominative absolute, this fact should always be mentioned in parsing the participle.

11. Care should be taken not to confound the past tense and the perfect participle; as, "He *began* to write," not, "He *begun* to write;" "He *did* it," not "He *done* it;" "He *saw* it," not "He *seen* it."

12. Care should be taken not to use the past tense instead of the perfect participle after the auxiliaries *to have* and *to be*; as, "He has *gone* home," not "He has *went* home;" "It was *written*," not "It was *wrote*."

Model for Parsing.

"James, having written a letter, sent it to the Post-office." "Having written" is the comp. perf. part., active, of the irr. trans. verb "to write" (write, wrote, written); and relates to "James," according to Rule XII. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Name the subject and the predicate in each of the following sentences. Name the phrases. Which of the phrases are introduced by a preposition? Which by a participle? Which of the participles in the sentences are used as subjects? Which are used as objects of prepositions? As objects of transitive verbs? Name the clauses. What is their use? Parse the Participles, Subjects, Verbs, Objectives, Possessives, Prepositions, Articles, Adjectives, and Adjective Pronouns, correcting the sentences where necessary :

Considering his age, he is very wise.

By carefully reading your compositions, you may detect errors in spelling.

Surprising news came from his home.

A shattered oak stood on the brink of the river.

It is freezing cold.

The hail, rattling against the windows, aroused them.

Knowledge, softened by good breeding, makes a man beloved and admired.

Having finished his speech, he descended from the platform.

The youthful poet, while walking alone in the woods, fell into a reverie.

Precept has little influence, if not enforced by example.

True honor, as defined by Cicero, is the concurrent approbation of good men,

Much depends on the pupil observing the rules.

What is the reason of this person dismissing his servant so hastily ?

I remember it being done.

The learning anything speedily requires great application.

By the exercising our faculties they are improved.

By observing of these rules you may avoid mistakes.

This was a betraying the trust reposed in him.

His being called a wit did not make him one.

The atrocious crime of being a young man, I shall attempt neither to palliate nor to deny.

The sun rising, darkness flees away.

Thus repulsed, our final hope is flat despair.

He soon begun to be weary of having nothing to do.

He was greatly heated, and he drunk with avidity.

I would have wrote a letter.

He had mistook his true interest.

The coat had no seam, but was wove throughout.

The French language is spoke in every kingdom in Europe.

Having taken much medicine, and continuing to grow worse, my distressed mother said that giving me medicine seemed useless. Travelling was then tried with encouraging signs of my growing better.

His lesson being learned, and his other duties having been performed, he was to have a ride on horseback, he selecting the route to be taken.

Breaking of windows by the throwing stones is a species of mischief which is as wrong as dishonesty.

The pupil became attached to his teacher.

The bells having rung, we departed.

William done a gross act of injustice.

The vultures, circling around, sailing, floating, showed by their actions the presence of food.

The pastor, visiting a poor laborer, found him employed in reading the Scriptures in the original Greek.

Having been educated a teacher, I must follow my profession.

When the Pilgrims had come to America, the streams were froze, the birds had flew to warmer regions; the fierce wintry wind blowed; they had been drove from their comfortable homes. To forsake the land of their birth was indeed sad; but to have forsook their faith, would have showed a want of sincerity and fortitude.

RULE XIII.

AN ADVERB MODIFIES THE VERB, ADJECTIVE, OR OTHER ADVERB TO WHICH IT RELATES.

NOTES.

1. Adverbs are usually placed before adjectives, after verbs, and often between the auxiliary and the verb; as, "He is *very* attentive." "She behaves *well*." "They are *much* esteemed." This rule is far from being universal in its application. It is impossible to give any rule which shall determine the position of the adverb in all circumstances.

2. Adverbs should not be used where adjectives are required, that is, to modify nouns or pronouns. Thus, "He dressed in a style *conformable* to the ruling fashion," not "*conformably*." "The dress looked *pretty*," not "*prettily*." "Pretty," here, is an adjective describing "dress," and does not modify the verb "looked." It does not express the manner of looking.

3. *From* should not be used before *hence*, *thence*, and *whence*, because it is implied. Custom, however, has to some extent sanctioned the violation of this rule.

4. *Hither*, *thither*, and *whither* were formerly used after verbs of motion. They are now used only on solemn occasions. Thus, "Come *here*," not "Come *hither*."

5. *Where* and *when* are often incorrectly used instead of *which* and its adjuncts; thus, "The situation *where* I found him," should be "The situation *in which* I found him." "Since *when* I have not seen him," should be "Since *which time* I have not seen him."

6. *There* is often used indefinitely, its only force being to introduce the verb; as, "There is truth in the old proverb." In such sentences, *there* does not mean *in that place*.

7. *How* should not be used for *that*; "He said *how* he would do it," should be "He said *that* he would do it."

8. *No* never qualifies a verb. When there is an ellipsis of the verb, *no* is sometimes incorrectly used instead of *not*; as, "Will you walk or *no*?" It should be "not," as will be seen by supplying the ellipsis. Thus, "Will you walk, or will you *not* walk?"

9. *Nay, no, yea, yes*, expressing simply negation or affirmation, contain in themselves a complete sense, and do not modify any verb. The same is true of *Amen*.

10. Two negatives are improper, if intended to express the same negation. When so used, they destroy each other, and are equivalent to an affirmative. Thus, "I cannot by *no* means allow it," should be, "I can by no means allow it," or "I cannot by any means allow it."

11. Sometimes, when one of the negatives (such as *dis, in, un, im*, etc.) is joined to another word, the two negatives form a pleasing and delicate mode of affirming; as, "His language, though simple, is *not inelegant*," that is, "It is elegant."

12. An adverb should not be placed between the infinitive and its auxiliary *to*. "He preferred to *not* go," should be, "He preferred *not* to go." "He determined to *thoroughly* understand it" should be "He determined to understand it *thoroughly*."

Model for Parsing.

"James wrote a letter hastily." "Hastily" is an adv. in the pos. deg. (hastily, more hastily, most hastily), and modifies the verb "wrote" to which it relates, according to Rule XII. (Quote.)

"A thoroughly bad man." "Thoroughly" is an adv. in the pos. deg. (thoroughly, more thoroughly, most thoroughly), and modifies the adj. "bad," to which it relates, according to Rule XII. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Name the subject and predicate in each of the following sentences. What single words modify the predicate? What phrases modify the predicate? What clauses modify the predicate? What adjectives, if any, are modified by single words? What phrases are found in the sentence? What kind? What use? Parse all the words in the following sentences except Conjunctions, correcting the sentences where necessary:

The travellers stopped when the sun set, and resumed their journey when the light appeared in the east.

Thou knowest that I reap where I sowed not.

Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also.

The maid was writing when the letter came.

I will remain until you return.

A very smart child may learn more rapidly than is desirable.

Economy, prudently conducted, leads very rapidly to wealth.

She is particularly beautiful.

The most cautious are frequently deceived.

We should not be overcome totally by present events.

He spoke unaffectedly and forcibly, and was heard attentively by the whole assembly.

He lived in a manner agreeable to the dictates of reason and religion.

They hoped for a soon and prosperous issue to the war.

He drew up a paper, where he too frequently represented his own merit.

He left Philadelphia last December, since when he has not been heard of.

Whether you study or no, you never know the lesson at the time of recitation.

He did not say whether his father would consent or no.

He will never be no taller.

They could not travel no farther.

Covet neither riches, or honors, or no such perishing things.

It was cold exceedingly ; the north wind incessantly blew ; I have experienced seldom so severe a winter.

This is an often error made by children in talking ; it is of seldom occurrence in writing.

She looks coldly, she is not warm enough dressed.

Some persons are of such a nature that they look cold upon those who treat them affectionate.

He arrived at the house where I live, but started from thence immediately.

The best of men not unfrequently are misled by the machinations of the crafty.

The boy has been very ill, he looks bad. In my opinion, he will not recover.

RULE XIV.

THE INFINITIVE MOOD DEPENDS UPON SOME VERB, ADJECTIVE, OR NOUN.

Explanation.—The infinitive limits and complements the meaning of the word on which it depends. "I desire to sleep," "Prone to sleep," "A time to sleep." Here, if we have not the infinitive, the meaning in each case is incomplete. The words "to sleep," are needed, both to complete the sense of the word on which they depend, and to give the word its intended limitation.

NOTES.

1. The preposition *to*, which is used in making the form called the infinitive mood, and which is generally called the sign of the infinitive mood, is not to be parsed by itself, but with the verb.

2. *To*, the sign of the infinitive, is usually omitted after the active voice of the verbs *bid*, *dare* (to venture), *need*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *let*, and some others; as, "I saw him do it." In the passive voice of these verbs, however, the "to" is usually expressed; as, "He was seen *to* do it."

3. *To*, the sign of the infinitive, should not be separated from the verb by inserting any other word or words. Thus, "I am resolved to not go," should be "I am resolved not to go."

4. The infinitive seems sometimes to depend upon other parts of speech, besides those enumerated in the rule. Thus, "Be so good *as* (conjunction) to read this letter." In such cases, the sentence is elliptical. The meaning is, "Be so good as you must be in order to read this letter."

5. The infinitive is sometimes used apparently without dependence upon any word; as, "To speak plainly, I do not entirely approve your conduct." This construction also is elliptical. The meaning is "In order to speak plainly, I do not entirely approve your conduct."

6. The infinitive mood is frequently used as a noun, and at the same time retains its government of the objective case. Thus, "*To write* letters is easy." Here, "to write," as a noun, is the subject of "is," and at the same time, as a verb, it governs "letters."

7. TENSE OF THE INFINITIVE.—Whenever the action or event signified by the infinitive is contemporary or future with respect to the verb on which it depends, the present tense of the infinitive is required. Hence, verbs expressive of hope, desire, intention, or command, must invariably be followed by the present, and not the perfect infinitive. Thus, “I expected to have found him,” should be, “I expected to find him.”

Model for Parsing.

“Henry expects to win the prize.” “To win” is a trans. verb, irr. (Win, won, won), act. v., infin. m., pres. t., and depends upon the verb “expects,” according to Rule XIV. (Quote.)

Exercises.

Name the subject and the predicate in each of the following sentences. Name all the single word modifiers of each. Name all the phrases. How used? Name the infinitives. What does each one modify? Parse all the words in the following sentences, except the Conjunctions, correcting the sentences where necessary :

A man anxious to reach home will aim to be at the station in time to secure his seat.

A good man loves to do good.

They have a wish to learn.

He has written some things hard to be understood.

The desire to be rich is one of the strongest of human desires.

A man eager to learn the truth is not apt to fall into error.

She is worthy to be loved.

They need not to call her.

I dare not to proceed so hastily.

He bade me to go home.

He was seen write the letter.

It is the difference of their conduct which makes us to approve the one, and to reject the other.

He was seen do it, though I heard his father to tell him not to do it.

Help me to finish this work, and you will not find the time to pass so slowly.

I cannot dig, to beg I am ashamed.

The driver was to blame.

Pride is harder to overcome than poverty.

Please give me that book.

I dare do all that may become a man; who dares do more is none.

It is cowardly to tell a lie.

Hear him talk.

He knows when to purchase.

I did not intend for to hurt him.

This is for to let you know how I am well.

He begged to have been released from his prison.

To live righteously, soberly, and godly, is required of all men.

To be temperate in eating and drinking, to use exercise in the open air, and to preserve the mind from tumultuous emotions, are the best preservatives of health.

I am not so stupid as to make such an error.

To be candid with you, I must say, you did wrong.

Not to leave you under the impression that I was one of your supporters, I tell you I did not vote for you.

RULE XV.

A CONJUNCTION CONNECTS THE WORDS, SENTENCES, PHRASES, OR CLAUSES, BETWEEN WHICH IT STANDS.

NOTES.

1. The words connected by conjunctions must be of the same class. Nouns are connected with nouns, adjectives with adjectives, verbs with verbs, adverbs with adverbs, etc. Nouns and pronouns are here considered as belonging to one class.

2. There is sometimes an ellipsis of one of the words or clauses, giving the appearance of a conjunction not truly connective; as, "*That* John has written the letter, is easily proved." Here, "*that*" seems simply to introduce a clause which is the subject of the verb. But by supplying the ellipsis, "*The fact* that John has written the letter," the true connective character of the conjunction appears.

3. Words and clauses are often connected, not by a single conjunction, but by two conjunctions, or by a conjunction and an adverb, corresponding to each other; as, "Give me *neither* poverty nor riches;" "The method proposed was defective, *inasmuch as* it did not provide the means for carrying the plan into effect."

4. The following is a list of the principal conjunctions that have a corresponding conjunction or adverb:

Neither, ——— *nor*; as, It is neither cold nor hot.

Either, ——— *or*; as, Either she or her sister must go.

Whether, ——— *or*; as, Whether he will do it or not, I cannot say.

Though, ——— *yet*; as, Though he was rich, yet for our sakes he became poor.

If, ——— *then*; as, If he speaks true, then you speak false.

Both, ——— *and*; as, I am debtor both to the Greeks and to the Barbarians.

Not only, ——— *but also*; as, Not only his character, but also his life was at stake.

As,	{	—— as; as, My land is as good as yours (equality).
		—— so; as, As the stars, so shall thy seed be (equality or proportion).
So,	{	—— as; He is not so wise as his brother (denying equality).
		—— that; I am so weak that I cannot walk (consequence).

5. The comparative degree, and the words *other*, *rather*, and *else*, are usually followed by *than*; as, "John is greater *than* James."

6. After *than* there is almost always an ellipsis of several words. In supplying these words, the latter clause must be analogous to or resemble the preceding; as, "John has written more *than* James," meaning "John has written more *than* James *has written*."

7. After *than*, contrary to analogy, *whom* is sometimes used instead of *who*; as, "Satan, *than* whom none higher sat."

8. Conjunctions usually connect the same moods and tenses of verbs, and the same cases of nouns and pronouns; as, "He reads and writes well;" "I saw him and her."

9. When conjunctions connect verbs in the same mood and tense, the subject is usually not repeated; but when the verbs connected are in different moods or tenses, the subject should be used before each; as, "He may return, but he will not remain." The subject is also often repeated when, in the progress of the sentence, we pass from the positive form of expression to the negative; from the negative to the positive; or when a contrast is made; as, "Though I admire him greatly, yet I do *not* love him" (from pos. to neg.), "Though I do *not* love him, yet I admire him greatly" (from neg. to pos.), "Though he was rich, *yet* he became poor" (contrast).

Models for Parsing.

"James and John are brothers." "And" is a conjunction, connecting "James" and "John," according to Rule XV. (Quote.)

"It is neither cold nor hot." "Neither" and "nor" are corresponding conjunctions, connecting "cold" and "hot," according to Rule XV., Note 4.

Exercises.

Name the subject and predicate in each of the following sentences. Name the clauses in each. How connected? Tell how each is used—principal or dependent? If dependent, what does it modify? Is it adverbial or adjectival in its use? Name all phrases, and tell what each modifies and give its use. Name all other modifiers. Parse all the words in the sentences, correcting and supplying ellipses where necessary:

Forget the faults of others, and remember your own.

Study universal rectitude, and cherish religious hope.

Practise humility, and reject everything in dress, carriage, or conversation, which has any appearance of pride.

If ye do these things, ye shall never fail.

It is neither cold or hot.

Neither despise the poor, or envy the rich.

Though he slay me, so will I trust him.

So as thy days, so shall thy strength be.

He was so angry as he could not speak.

He has little more of the scholar besides the name.

He or me must go. Neither he nor her can attend.

Anger glances into the heart of a wise man, but will rest only in the bosom of fools.

To profess regard, and acting differently, mark a base mind.

Rank may confer influence, but will not necessarily produce virtue.

She was proud, though now humble.

He is not rich, but is respectable.

The story was not believed — we were defeated.

Wood is not — durable — iron.

One hour is — long — another.

He ate so much — he became sick.

As he treated others, — he expected to be treated by them.

Though he was severe with the vicious, — he was lenient to those who tried to do right.

It was done better by him than — me.

Washington was a better man than Napoleon —.

The teacher ought to know more than his scholars —.

I was your enemy, but now am your friend.

He is his friend to-day, but may be his enemy to-morrow.

Unless it blossoms in the spring, the tree will not bear fruit in autumn.

The days in December, you know, are at their shortest, and therefore you must rise by the dawn, if you would have much daylight.

Simon, son of Jonah, lovest thou me more than these?

What do ye more than others?

Proportion is simple and compound.

I cannot tell how the animal escaped without someone untying it,

I will see if it is raining or not.

He could not beg it nor borrow it.

I shall neither depend on you nor him.

The terms rich or poor enter not into their language.

He sendeth rain, both on the just and unjust.

Alfred than whom a greater king never reigned.

His brother is taller than him.

RULE XVI.—INTERJECTIONS.

AN INTERJECTION HAS NO DEPENDENCE UPON OTHER WORDS.

NOTES.

1. In parsing an interjection all that is necessary is to state what part of speech it is.

2. Sometimes interjections have the appearance of governing the objective case; as, "Ah me!" Such sentences are always elliptical, some verb or preposition being understood. In the expression, "Ah me!" the word *pity* or some other such word is understood. The sentence means, "Ah! *pity* me."



II. ANALYSIS.

1. ANALYSIS treats of the separation of a sentence into the parts which compose it.



I. PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

A Sentence is a number of words put together so as to make complete sense; as, "Man is mortal."

Note.—A sentence may consist of a single word; as, "Depart."

The Essential Parts of a sentence are two, The Subject and the Predicate.

The Subject is that of which something is affirmed.

The Predicate is that which is affirmed or asserted of the Subject.

In the sentence, "Man lives," *man* is the Subject, *lives* is the Predicate.

There cannot be a sentence without a Subject, expressed or understood.

In the sentence, "*Depart*," the Subject is *thou* or *you* understood.

There cannot be a sentence without a Predicate, expressed or understood.

A Subject and a Predicate, together, make a sentence.

I. THE SUBJECT.

Distinction of Grammatical Subject and Logical Subject.

The Grammatical Subject is simply the noun or the pronoun which is the subject of the verb.

Examples.—" *Man* lives." "The good old *man* still lives." "*He* lives." "*He*, the eloquent and able defender of the Constitution, is dead." In the first two examples, the Grammatical Subject is *man*; in the other two, it is *he*.

The Logical Subject is not simply the noun or the pronoun which is the subject of the verb, but includes also all the attendant words which in any way modify the meaning of the subject.

In the second example above, the Logical Subject is *The good old man*; in the fourth example, it is *He, the eloquent and able defender of the Constitution*.

The Logical Subject includes all the words of the sentence, which, taken together, form the subject of discourse.

The Logical Subject is the one treated of in Analysis.¹

The Subject is of three kinds, Simple, Complex, and Compound.

¹ In the remainder of this chapter, it will be understood that the term Subject, unless otherwise specified, means the Logical Subject.

I. SIMPLE SUBJECTS.

A **Simple Subject** is a single noun or pronoun, the subject of a verb, with no modifying word or words.

The Logical Subject and the Grammatical Subject are here the same.

Examples.—"James wrote the letter." "*He* wrote the letter." "*Henry Clay* rose in his place, and addressed the House." "*Rivers* flow into the sea."

II. COMPLEX SUBJECTS.

A **Complex Subject** is one in which the noun or pronoun, which is the subject of the verb, is accompanied by some other word or words which in some way limit or modify its meaning.

Example.—"The miserable man, overwhelmed with debt, and convicted of crime, lived a most unhappy life." Here the subject is "man" with all the other accompanying words in italics. These accompanying words modify or limit the word "man." They all, taken together, form the subject of which the affirmation is made.

Adjuncts to the Subject.

Adjuncts are the accompanying words which make a Subject complex.

The Adjuncts of the Subject are of three kinds, namely, Single Words, Phrases, and Clauses.

A **Phrase** is a number of words, connected in meaning, but not containing a predicate, and not making by themselves complete sense. Phrases, in their office or use, are either adjectival or adverbial.

A **Clause** is a part of a sentence containing a predicate with its subject, making by themselves complete sense, yet not independent, being used to modify some other part or parts of the sentence of which it is a part.

Clauses, in their office or use, are either substantive, adjectival, or adverbial.

The following are examples of each of the three kinds of adjuncts :

1. **Single Words.**—“*The good man* has departed.” Here “the” and “good” are single words, modifying the subject “man.”

2. **Phrases.**—“The good man, *in the midst of his usefulness*, has departed.” Here the words, “in the midst of his usefulness,” form a modifying phrase.

3. **Clauses.**—“The good man, *who had gained great renown*, departed.” Here the words, “who had gained great renown,” form a modifying clause.

Ways in which Adjuncts Modify the Subject.

The Subject is modified by Adjuncts, as follows :

1. By an article ; as, “*The man* has arrived.”
2. By an adjective ; as “*Good men* are few.”
3. By a noun or pronoun in apposition ; as, “James Brown, *artist*, is dead” ; “Elizabeth *herself* has arrived.”
4. By a noun or pronoun in the possessive ; as, “*Winter’s* frosts have disappeared” ; “*Your* time has come.”
5. By a participle ; as, “Brothers *divided* are a sad sight.”
6. By a verb in the infinitive ; as, “The time *to study* should not be lost.”
7. By a phrase, which may be—
 1. A preposition and its object ; as, “The lessons *of the day* were not recited.”
 2. Appositive ; as, “John, *the Baptist*, preached in the wilderness.”
 3. Participial ; as, “The sun, *shining through the mist*, looked white and ghastly.”
8. By a clause ; as, “Lessons *which are easy* are apt to be neglected” ; “The fear *that he might be detected* kept him from committing the crime.”

Model.—“A large increase of wealth might make him careless.”

In this sentence,

1. The simple subject is *increase*.

2. Its adjuncts or modifiers are the article *a*, the adjective *large*, and the preposition and its object, *of wealth*.

3. The whole complex subject is *a large increase of wealth*.

Exercises.—Name, (1) The simple subject, (2) The adjuncts or modifiers of the simple subject, (3) The whole complex subject, in each of the following sentences:

1. The thorough knowledge of Scripture helps us in understanding all other truth.

2. An anxious desire to do right was manifest in all his conduct.

3. James's impetuous disposition, which ought to have been checked, was allowed to have free sway.

4. The great apostle Paul himself was subject to calumny.

5. A selfish desire for wealth, unchecked, is apt to pervert the moral principles.

6. A neat little cottage, standing by the river's brink, attracted his attention.

7. The tallest oak must bend before the mighty power of the wind.

8. Henry, an English king, was considered to be a great scholar because he could write his name.

Ways in which the Adjuncts of the Subject are Modified by other Adjuncts.

Adjuncts of the Subject may themselves be modified by other words, as follows:

1. A noun used as an adjunct of the subject may be modified in all respects as the principal noun.

Example.—"James Applegate, the old *man* that you spoke of, has left for parts unknown."

2. An Adjective used as an adjunct of the subject may be modified,

1. By a preposition and its object.

2. By an infinitive.

3. By an adverb.

Examples.—"A man merciful *in disposition*." "A man quick *to resent injury*." "A *very* abundant harvest."

Note.—An adverb used to modify an adjunct adjective may itself be modified,

1. By another adverb.
2. By a preposition and its object.

Examples.—“*Most* thoroughly wicked”; “An essay replete, agreeably *to expectation*, with varied knowledge.

3. A Participle, or an Infinitive, used as an adjunct of the subject, may be modified,

1. By an object.
2. By a preposition with its object.
3. By an infinitive.
4. By an adverb.

Examples of the Participle.—“The man, having written *the letter*, mailed it.” “The man, living *in ease*, became indolent.” “The man, wishing *to sleep*, retired to his room.” “The man, *thoroughly* frightened, fled from the house.”

Examples of the Infinitive.—“A desire *to gain honor*.” “A desire *to live in ease*.” “A resolution *to cease to do evil*.” “A resolution *to cease immediately* from evil courses.”

NOTES.

1. A Participle, or an Infinitive, with its adjuncts, may be used as a subject; as, “*Learning Latin thoroughly* requires much time.” “*To learn Latin thoroughly* requires much time.” (See page 150, Note 1; page 157, Note 6.)

2. A Participle, when used as a subject, may be modified by a noun, or by an adjective, having no other grammatical dependence; as, “Being a *hero* requires courage,” “Being *heroic* requires courage.”

3. An Infinitive, when used as a subject, may be modified by a noun, an adjective, or a participle, having no other grammatical dependence; as, “To be a *hero* requires courage,” “To be *heroic* requires courage,” “To live constantly *fearing* death requires patience.” (See page 157, Note 6.)

4. The Participle or Infinitive, in these cases, must relate to an intransitive verb, or to the passive voice. (See page 131, Note 3; page 150, Note 7.)

Model.—"The desire of the aspiring boy to receive in his youth a suitable education was natural."

In this sentence,

1. The simple subject is *desire* ("desire was natural").
2. The adjuncts or modifiers of this subject are the following:

(a) The article *the* ("the desire").

(b) The preposition and its object, *of boy*, ("the desire of boy").

(c) The infinitive *to receive* ("The desire of boy to receive").

3. The adjuncts are themselves modified by other adjuncts, as follows:

(a) The adjunct *of boy* is modified by the article *the* and the adjective *aspiring* ("of the aspiring boy").

(b) The adjunct *to receive* is modified by the object *education* and the preposition and its object, *in youth* ("to receive in youth education").

(c) The adjunct *in youth* is modified by the possessive pronoun *his* ("in his youth").

(d) The adjunct *education* is modified by the article *a* and the adjective *suitable* ("a suitable education").

4. The whole complex subject is, *The desire of the aspiring boy to receive in his youth a suitable education*.

Exercises.—Name (1) The simple subject, (2) Its adjuncts or modifiers, (3) The adjuncts of the adjuncts, (4) The whole complex subject, in each of the following sentences:

1. The earnest conviction of Christopher Columbus that he would reach land by sailing westward led to the discovery of the new world.

2. Paul, the apostle of the gentiles, rejoicing steadfastly in the hope set before him, suffered martyrdom.

3. The birds with their bright feathers, sailing through the air, gladden the heart of man.

4. Careless of fame, the youth pursues the even tenor of his way.

5. In the centre was a vast hollow square filled with innumerable flowering plants.

6. Sirius, the dog star, is visible during the long winter nights.

7. At the battle of Hastings, William of Normandy conquered Harold, the Saxon king.

Note.—The Subject is often transposed and placed after the predicate.

III. COMPOUND SUBJECTS.

A Compound Subject is one which consists of two or more subjects, whether simple or complex, connected by one or more conjunctions.

NOTES.

1. Sometimes the separate subjects which form the Compound subject may make separate sentences, by repeating the predicate.

Example.—"Lakes and oceans are large bodies of water." This may be separated into two sentences, thus: "Lakes are large bodies of water," "Oceans are large bodies of water."

2. Sometimes the several subjects cannot be thus separated, because the predicate does not admit of it.

Example.—"The Raritan river, the Delaware river, and the connecting canal, form a continuous line of inland navigation between New York and Philadelphia." Here the predicate is true of the compound subject as a whole, but not of any one of the single subjects taken by itself."

3. This separation into distinct sentences may be made whenever the predicate is true of each subject taken by itself, but cannot be made when the predicate is true of the different subjects only when taken together as a whole.

4. Each of the separate subjects which form a compound subject may be complex, and as such may be modified by adjuncts in all the different ways already described under the head of Complex Subjects.

Exercise.—"John, James, and George attended this school during last term."

Add clauses to each of the subjects.

II. THE PREDICATE.

Distinction of Grammatical Predicate and Logical Predicate.

The Grammatical Predicate is simply the finite verb to which the noun or the pronoun forming the grammatical subject is nominative.

Examples.—"The man *lives*." "The man *has* at length *reached* home safely." "Cæsar *was* the conqueror of Gaul." The grammatical predicates here are the verbs *lives*, *has reached*, and *was*.

The Logical Predicate is not simply the verb of which the noun or the pronoun is the subject, but it includes also all the attendant words which in any way modify the meaning of the verb.

In the second example above, the Logical predicate is, *has at length reached home safely*; in the third example it is, *was the conqueror of Gaul*.

The Logical Predicate, then, includes all the words which, taken together, tell what is said or affirmed of the subject.

The Logical Predicate is the one treated of in Analysis.

The Predicate is of three kinds, Simple, Complex, and Compound.

I. SIMPLE PREDICATES.

A Simple Predicate is a single finite verb, having some noun or pronoun for its subject.

The Logical Predicate and the Grammatical Predicate here are the same.

Examples.—"The sun *has risen*." "The illustrious general, who had been victorious in a hundred fights, *was defeated*."

II. COMPLEX PREDICATES.

A Complex Predicate is one in which the predicate

is accompanied by some other word or words which in some way limit or modify the meaning of the predicate.

Example.—"The life of such a man *will at length come to an end in the midst of shame and sorrow.*" Here the predicate is the verb "will come" with all the other accompanying words in italics. These accompanying words modify or limit the verbs "will come." They all, taken together, form the affirmation which is made in regard to "the life of such a man."

Adjuncts to the Predicate.

Adjuncts are the accompanying words which make a Predicate complex.

The Adjuncts of the Predicate are of three kinds, namely, Single Words, Phrases, and Clauses.

The following are examples of these three kinds of adjuncts :

1. **Single Words.**—"The old man went *back slowly.*" Here "back" and "slowly" are single words modifying the predicate "went."

2. **Phrases.**—"The old man went *to his home in great wrath.*" Here the phrases, "to his home," and "in great wrath," modify the predicate "went."

3. **Clauses.**—"The man lived in the house *which was upon the hill-side.*" Here the clause, "which was upon the hill-side," is one of the modifiers of the predicate "lived."

Ways in which Adjuncts Modify the Predicate.

The Predicate is modified by Adjuncts, as follows :

1. By an adjective relating to the subject-nominative; as, "Good men are *few.*" The adjective in this case is called the adjective-predicate, and is parsed as modifying the noun or pronoun which is the subject of the verb.

2. By a participle relating to the subject-nominative; as, "He sat *watching.*"

3. By a noun or pronoun in the nominative after the verb; as, "The men have become *drunkards.*" "It is *I.*" The noun or pronoun in this case is called the nominative-predicate.

Note 1.—The nominative-predicate after a verb is sometimes introduced by the conjunction *as*. “He was regarded *as* a scholar.”

Note 2.—A noun or pronoun can be nominative-predicate only after intransitive verbs and after the passive voice of transitive verbs; as, “He was called a *villain*.”

Note 3.—A noun-predicate after an infinitive may be in the objective, if the word which it represents is in the objective; as, “We permitted *them* to become members.”

4. By a noun or pronoun which is the object of the verb; as, “We saw *him*,” “We heard *noises*.”

Note.—An objective-predicate can occur only after a transitive verb in the active voice, or after an intransitive verb having the same meaning as the object; as, “He *runs* a race.”

5. By a preposition with its object; as, “The man has gone *to town*.”

6. By a verb in the infinitive; as, “He continued *to move*.”

7. By an adverb; as, “He writes *rapidly*.”

8. By a clause; as, “He asked *that the time might be extended*.”



Model.—“No man can truly say that he is without sin.”

In this sentence,

1. The simple predicate is *can say*.

2. Its adjuncts or modifiers are the adverb *truly*, and the clause, *that he is without sin*.

3. The whole complex predicate is, *can truly say that he is without sin*.

Exercises.—Name, (1) The simple predicate; (2) The adjuncts or modifiers of the simple predicate; (3) The whole complex predicate, in each of the following sentences:

1. Wealth begets desire for wealth.

2. Men of learning have often been unwise.

3. The lark rises toward heaven singing.

4. Fishes glide rapidly through water by swimming.

5. Christopher Columbus believed after study that the earth was round.

6. On the Pacific Ocean have swiftly come the rush and sweep of victory.

Ways in which the Adjuncts of the Predicate are Modified by other Adjuncts.

Adjuncts of the predicate may themselves be modified by other words.

The several parts of speech, when used as adjuncts to the predicate, are modified in the same manner as the same words are when used as adjuncts to the subject.



Model.—"The wrestler found at length a young man willing to compete with him."

In this sentence,

1. The simple predicate is the verb *found* ("wrestler found").

2. The adjuncts or modifiers of this predicate are the following:

(a) The noun *man*, object of the verb ("wrestler found man").

(b) The preposition and its object, *at length* ("The wrestler found at length man").

3. The adjuncts are themselves modified by other adjuncts, as follows:

(a) The adjunct *man* is modified by the article *a* and the adjectives *young* and *willing* ("a young man willing").

(b) The adjunct *willing* is itself modified by the infinitive *to compete*, and that again by the preposition and object *with him* ("willing to compete with him").

4. The whole complex predicate is, *found at length a young man willing to compete with him*.

Exercises.—Name (1) The simple predicate; (2) Its adjuncts or modifiers; (3) The adjuncts of the adjuncts; (4) The whole complex predicate, in each of the following sentences:

1. The silver mines of Mexico and Peru far exceed in value the whole of the European and Asiatic mines.

2. The distance from the earth to the sun is, in round numbers, one hundred millions of miles.

3. The ordinary processes of direct instruction are of immense importance, presupposing in the mind to which they are applied an active co-operation.

4. The faith of the first Christians expressed itself in vehement reaction against the prevailing tendencies of an exceedingly corrupt civilization.

5. The genius for disorder, which shows itself in some young persons, is not a hopeful sign for their future comfort in life.

6. We rejoice at the prospect of the young David of the New World stepping forth to hew down the Goliath of feudalism.

Review Exercises.—Name, (1) The simple subject; (2) Its adjuncts; (3) The adjuncts of the adjuncts; (4) The whole complex subject, in each of the foregoing sentences,

III. COMPOUND PREDICATES.

A Compound Predicate is one which consists of two or more predicates, whether simple or complex, united by one or more conjunctions.

NOTES.

1. The several predicates which form the compound predicate may generally make separate sentences, by repeating the subject.

Examples.—"The Atlantic ocean is the large body of water lying between Europe and America, and is traversed continually by steamers and sailing vessels." This may be separated into two distinct sentences, thus: "The Atlantic ocean is the large body of water lying between Europe and America." "The Atlantic ocean is traversed continually by steamers and sailing vessels."

"Drunkenness enslaves and debases a man." This may be separated into the two sentences, "Drunkenness enslaves a man," "Drunkenness debases a man."

2. Each of the separate predicates which form a compound predicate may be complex, and as such may be modified by

adjuncts, in all the different ways described under the head of Complex Predicates.

Exercise.—"On the highway you will find bicycles, horsemen, carriages, and pedestrians."

Add clauses to each modifier of the predicate.



II. KINDS OF SENTENCES.

Two Ways of Classifying Sentences.

SENTENCES are divided into classes or kinds, first in reference to their use, secondly in reference to their structure.

I. Sentences, as to their use, are divided into three kinds, namely, Declarative, Interrogative, and Imperative.

A Declarative Sentence is one which is used simply to declare or deny.

A Declarative Sentence must always contain a verb in the Indicative or the Potential mood; as, "He has not failed," "A life spent in doing good could not be a failure."*

An Interrogative Sentence is one which is used to ask a question.

An Interrogative sentence must always contain a verb in the Indicative or the Potential mood; as, "Has he failed?" "Could a life spent in doing good be a failure?"

An Imperative Sentence is one which is used to command, exhort, entreat, or permit.

An Imperative sentence must always contain a verb in the Imperative mood; as, "Write the copy according to your directions," "Father, forgive us," "Go, if you desire it."

* In the preceding part of this chapter, explaining the Parts of a Sentence, all the examples given have been Declarative Sentences. For the purposes of illustration, they are more convenient than examples of the other kinds of sentences.

II. Sentences, as to their structure, are divided into three kinds, Simple, Complex, and Compound.

This second division of sentences requires a more distinct consideration.

I. SIMPLE SENTENCES.

A Simple Sentence is one which contains but one subject and one predicate.

The subject and the predicate may have any kind or degree of complexity, except that arising from the introduction of a clause, and yet the sentence be simple.

"The Delaware, the Raritan, and the connecting canal form a continuous line of navigation." This is a simple sentence, because, although three things are named, they constitute but one inseparable subject. The proposition would not be true, if made of any one of them separately.

"Lakes and oceans are large bodies of water." This is not simple, because it may be resolved into the two sentences, "Lakes are large bodies of water," "Oceans are large bodies of water."

"A canoe which is made of bark is easily broken." This is not simple, because the subject is modified by a clause. The sentence thus has two predicates, *is made* and *is broken*.

"The man learned that the canoe was made of bark." This is not simple, because the predicate is modified by a clause. The sentence thus has two predicates, *learned* and *was made*.

"The foolish young man, in the flush of a momentary excitement, rushing into the surging stream, at the time of high water, in a frail canoe made of bark, was rapidly whirled by the impetuosity of the descending current into the yawning abyss below." Here, both the subject and the predicate are very complex, yet the sentence is simple. It has but one subject and one predicate.

II. COMPLEX SENTENCES.

A Complex Sentence is one which contains a simple

sentence, with one or more clauses modifying either its subject or its predicate.

“A life which is spent in doing good cannot be a failure.” This is a complex sentence, because the subject is modified by the clause, *which is spent in doing good*. The sentence thus has two predicates.

“He was at the station when the train arrived.” This is complex, because the predicate is modified by the clause, *when the train arrived*. The sentence thus has two predicates.

III. COMPOUND SENTENCES.

A Compound Sentence is one which contains two or more sentences, whether simple or complex, connected by one or more conjunctions.

“He left home in good season, and was at the station when the train arrived.” This is a compound sentence, containing the simple sentence, *He left home in good season*, and the complex sentence, [*He*] *was at the station when the train arrived*, the two being connected by the conjunction *and*.

The sentences which compose a Compound Sentence are called its Members.

Every sentence may be resolved into six elements: two essential elements, the subject and the predicate; two modifying elements, adverbial and adjectival; one connecting element, and the independent element. Any part or all of the last four elements named may be present in a sentence.



III. EXPLANATION OF TERMS.

The terms Phrase, Clause, and Member frequently occur in speaking of Sentences. These terms have been already defined, but some additional illustration seems desirable.

I. PHRASES.

A **Phrase** is a number of words, connected in meaning, but not containing a predicate, and not making by themselves complete sense.

The principal Phrases are the following :

1. The Appositional Phrase ; as, "June, *the month of roses*, has come at length."

2. The Prepositional Phrase ; as, "The cause *of all this misery* was bad temper."

3. The Adjective Phrase ; as, "Youth, *full of expectation*, is ever sanguine."

4. The Participial Phrase ; as, "*Living on vegetables*, he was not strong."

5. The Infinitive Phrase ; as, "He determined *to live on vegetables only*."

6. The Subject Phrase. This is where a Participial Phrase or an Infinitive Phrase is used as the subject of the verb ; as, "*Living on vegetables only* is not conducive to strength," "*To live on vegetables only* is not conducive to strength."

7. The Absolute Phrase ; as, "*The king being dead*, his eldest son succeeds to the throne."

8. The Independent Phrase. This includes all mere exclamations, and all words addressed to persons or things, and not grammatically dependent upon the other parts of the sentence ; as, "*Out upon the villain!* he deserves the halter," "*Detestable villain*, you deserve the halter." These exclamations and addresses often consist of a single word ; as, "*Villain*, leave the house."

II. CLAUSES.

A **Clause** is a part of a sentence, containing a verb and its subject, making by themselves complete sense, yet not independent, being used to modify some other part or parts of that sentence of which it is a part.

The principal Clauses are the following :

1. The Relative Clause ; as, "The man *who is faithful to duty* is to be honored.

2. The Appositional Clause ; as, "The maxim, *Put not off till to-morrow what can be done to-day*, has much wisdom."

3. The Subject Clause ; as, "*That life is uncertain* is known to all."

4. The Object Clause ; as, "We know *that Alaska is a cold country*."

5. The Adverbial Clause ; as, "He remained at the station *until the train left*."

6. The Conjunctive Clause ; as, "He will meet you at the station, *if you come in time*."

III. MEMBERS.

A **Member** is a sentence, complete and independent in itself, and not used to modify any word or clause, yet united by a conjunction with some other sentence to form a compound sentence.

The difference between Members and Clauses is this : Members are parts of compound sentences ; Clauses are parts of Complex sentences. A Member of a sentence may stand alone as an independent sentence ; a Clause, though containing a subject and predicate, is always dependent upon something outside of itself.

"The sun, *when it had risen*, scorched the grass." "When it had risen" cannot stand alone. It is a clause, dependent upon "sun."

"The sun had risen, and the grass was scorched." Here are two sentences, each complete and independent in itself, but both united to form a Compound sentence. These two sentences, taken separately, are called the Members of the Compound sentence.

A complex sentence may be reduced to a simple sentence by abridging the dependent clause to the form of a phrase.

The phrase may be reduced to the form of a single word modifier.

Example.—A generous man has many admirers. A man of generosity has many admirers. A man who is generous has many admirers.

The general rule for the abridgement of a dependent clause is to take away the connective and change the predicate either to an infinitive or to a participle.

The abridged form thus becomes a participle or a participial noun, or a nominative absolute or an infinitive.



GENERAL EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

General Formula.—Name the kind of sentence, and why. Name the essential elements (the subject, and the predicate) in the first proposition. Name and analyze the modifying elements (adverbial or adjective), if present in the proposition. Name the connective element and independent element, if present. Analyze the modifying elements.

Model.—"The esteem of wise and good men is the greatest of all temporal encouragements to virtue; and it is the mark of an abandoned spirit to have no regard for it."

1. This is a declarative sentence, compound, and contains two members connected by the conjunction *and*.

2. The first member, "The esteem of wise and good men is the greatest of all temporal encouragements to virtue," is a simple sentence.

3. The subject, "The esteem of wise and good men," is complex. Analyze it according to the model on page 170.

4. The predicate, "is the greatest of all encouragements to virtue," is complex. Analyze it according to the model on page 175.

5. The second member, "it is the mark of an abandoned spirit to have no regard for it," is a simple sentence.

6. Its subject, "it," is simple.

7. Its predicate, "is the mark of an abandoned spirit to have no regard to it," is complex. Analyze it according to the model on page 175.

Model.—"Are the stars, that gem the vault of the heavens above us, mere decorations of the night, or suns and centres of planetary systems?"

1. This is an interrogative sentence, compound, and contains two members connected by the conjunction *or*.

2. The first member, "Are the stars, that gem the vault of the heavens above us, mere decorations of the night," is a complex sentence, containing a relative clause.

3. The subject, "the stars, that gem the vault of the heavens above us," is complex. Analyze, first, the subject and predicate of the clause, and secondly, the whole complex subject, according to the models on pages 170 and 175.

4. The predicate, "are mere decorations of the night," is complex. Analyze it according to the model on page 175.

5. The second member, supplying the ellipsis, "[are they] suns and centres of planetary systems," is a simple sentence. Analyze its subject and predicate according to the models already given.

Exercises.—Analyze in the same manner the following sentences:

1. The wind and rain are over; calm is the noon of day; the clouds are divided in the heaven; and over the green hill flies the inconstant sun.

2. The look that is fixed on immortality wears not a perpetual smile; and eyes, through which shines the light of other worlds, are often dimmed with tears.

3. Books are standing counsellors and preachers, always at hand, and always disinterested; having this advantage over oral instructors, that they are ready to repeat their lesson as often as we please.

4. Can we imagine that God's highest gifts of intelligence, imagination, and moral power, were intended to provide only for animal wants?

5. Do the voice of the wise, and the arm of the brave, and the blood of the patriot go for nothing in the wild conflict that is desolating the earth?

6. Wordsworth, in his poetry, works out wisdom as it comes from the common heart of man, and appeals to that heart in turn; causing us to recognize the truth, that there is something in humanity which deserves alike our love and reverence.

7. Give me a larger eye, and I will reveal to you another rank of worlds marshalled behind those whose shining hosts you now behold.

8. The poems of Ossian, which were first translated into English by Macpherson, are very remarkable.

9. The Greeks may well boast of having produced a Euclid, whose works are esteemed even by the profoundest mathematicians of modern times.

10. Cherish true patriotism, which has its root in benevolence; but be not blind to the defects of your country, because you were born in it.



MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES.

Directions.—Name the subject and the predicate in each of the following sentences. Do they agree in number and person? Name the single word modifiers in each sentence. Are they adjectival or adverbial? As such are they proper in form? Name the phrases. Are they adjectival or adverbial? Are they properly placed? Name the clauses. How are they used? Are they properly placed? Name the connectives. Name the independent words. Parse the words in each sentence, correcting the sentences where necessary.

1.

1. John writes pretty. 2. I shall never do so no more. 3. The train of our ideas are often interrupted. 4. Was you present at the last meeting? 5. He dare not act otherwise than he does. 6. Him whom they seek is in the house. 7. George or I is the person. 8. They or he is much to be blamed. 9. The troop consist of fifty men. 10. Those set of books was a valuable present.

2.

1. A pillar sixty foot high. 2. His conduct evinced the most extreme vanity. 3. These trees are remarkable tall. 4. He acted bolder than was expected. 5. This is he who I gave the book to. 6. From whence came they? 7. Who do you lodge with now? 8. The Select Council was not unanimous in its opinion. 9. I know not whom else are expected. 10. Her father and her were at church.

3.

1. The master requested him and I to read more distinctly. 2. It is no more but his due. 3. Flatterers flatter as long, and no longer than they have expectations of gain. 4. John told the same story which you did. 5. This is the largest tree which I have ever seen. 6. Let he and I read the next chapter. 7. Those sort of dealings are unjust. 8. David the son of Jesse was the youngest of his brothers. 9. You was very kind to him, he said. 10. Well, said I, what does thou think of him now?

4.

1. James is one of those boys that was kept in at school for bad behavior. 2. Thou, James, did deny the deed. 3. Neither good nor evil come of themselves. 4. We need not to be afraid. 5. He expected to have gained more by the bargain. 6. You should have drank goat's milk. 7. It was him who spoke first. 8. Is it me that you mean? 9. Who did you buy your grammar from? 10. If one takes a wrong method at first setting out, it will lead them astray.

5.

1. Neither man nor woman were present. 2. I am more taller than you. 3. She is the same lady who sang so sweetly. 4. After the most strictest notions of the sect, I lived a hermit. 5. There was more sophists than one. 6. If a person have lived twenty or thirty years, he should have some experience. 7. If the officer or his secretary made the mistake they should be censured. 8. Fidelity and truth is the foundation of all justice. 9. When they had went out, they saw no man there save the farmer only. 10. All of which we hope for is sometimes denied to us.

6.

1. I wrote to, and cautioned the captain against it. 2. The girl's book it is torn in pieces. 3. It is not me who he is in love with. 4. He which commands himself, commands the whole world. 5. Nothing is more lovelier than virtue. 6. The peoples happiness is the statesmans honor. 7. Changed to a worser shape thou canst not be. 8. I have drunk no spirituous liquors this six years. 9. He is taller than me, but I am

stronger than him. 10. Solid peace and contentment consists neither in beauty or riches, but in the favor of God.

7.

1. After who is the King of Israel come out? 2. The reciprocations of love and friendship between he and I have been many and sincere. 3. Abuse of mercies ripen us for judgment. 4. Peter and John is not at school to-day. 5. Three of them was taken into custody. 6. To study diligently, and behave genteelly, is commendable. 7. The enemies who we have most to fear are those of our own hearts. 8. Suppose life never so long, fresh accessions of knowledge may still be made. 9. Surely thou who reads so much in the Bible, can tell me what became of Elijah. 10. Neither the master nor the scholars is reading.

8.

1. Trust not him, whom, you know, is dishonest. 2. I love no interests but that of truth and virtue. 3. Every imagination of the thoughts of the heart are evil continually. 4. No one can be blamed for taking due care of their health. 5. The product of the silver mines of Mexico and Peru far exceed those of Europe and Asia. 6. I have read Popes Homer, and Drydens Virgil. 7. He that is diligent you should commend. 8. There was an earthquake which made the earth to tremble. 9. He was very much made on at school. 10. Which is the most northern division of the Eastern continent, Asia or Europe?

9.

1. They ride faster than us. 2. Was it him who came last? Yes, it was him. 3. I shall take care that no one shall suffer no injury. 4. Every man should act suitable to his character and station in life. 5. His arguments were exceeding clear. 6. I only spoke three words on that subject. 7. The ant and the bee sets a good example before dronish boys. 8. Both candidates are popular men, and it is quite doubtful who the people will select for the office. 9. Let every chair, every book, and every slate, be put in their places. 10. The trial is over and the jury have rendered a verdict of guilty.

10.

1. Evil communications corrupts good manners. 2. Hannibal was one of the greatest generals whom the world ever saw. 3. The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageously situated for gaining of wisdom. 4. These are the rules of grammar, by the observing which you may avoid mistakes. 5. His principal amusement and occupation were reading. 6. My exercises are not well wrote, I do not hold my pen well. 7. Grammar teaches us to speak proper. 8. She accused her companion for having betrayed her. 9. I will not dissent with her. 10. Who shall I give it to?

11.

1. Who are you looking for? 2. That is a book which I am much pleased with. 3. That picture of the emperor's is a very exact resemblance of him. 4. Everything that we here enjoy, change, decay, and come to an end, 5. It is not him they blame so much. 6. No people has more faults than they that pretend to have none. 7. The laws of Draco is said to have been wrote with blood. 8. It is so clear, or so obvious, as I need not explain it. 9. She taught him and I to read. 10. The greater a bad man's accomplishments are, the more dangerous he is to society, and the more less fit for a companion.

12.

1. Each has their own faults, and every one should endeavor to correct their own. 2. Let your promises be few, and such that you can perform. 3. His being at enmity with Cæsar and Antony were the cause of perpetual discord. 4. Their being forced to their books in an age at enmity with all restraint have been the reason why many have hated books all their lives. 5. A girl is wanted who can do the work of a small family, with good reference. 6. It was his duty to have interposed his authority in an affair of so much importance. 7. He spent his whole life in the doing good. 8. Every gentleman who frequented the house, and conversed with the erectors of this occasional club, were invited to pass an evening when they thought fit. 9. The winter has not been so severe as we expected it to have been. 10. A lampoon, or a satire, does not carry in them robbery or murder.

13.

1. She and you were not mistaken in her conjectures. 2. My sister and I, as well as my brother, are employed in their respective occupations. 3. He repents him of that indiscreet action. 4. It was me, and not him, that wrote it. 5. Art thou him? 6. I am a man who approves of wholesome discipline, and who recommend it to others; but I am not a person who promotes severity, or who object to mild and generous treatment. 7. Prosperity, as truly asserted by Seneca, it very much obstructs the knowledge of ourselves. 8. To do to others as we would that they should do to us, it is our duty. 9. This grammar was purchased at Ogle's the bookseller's. 10. The council was not unanimous.

14.

1. Who spilt the ink upon the table? Him. 2. Who lost this book? Me. 3. Whose pen is this? Johns. 4. There is, in fact, no impersonal verbs in any language. 5. A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a description. 6. I had no sooner placed her at my right hand, by the fire, but she opened to me the reason of her visit. 7. A prudent wife, she shall be blessed. 8. The house you speak of, it cost me five thousand dollars. 9. Not only the counsel's and attorney's, but the judge's opinion also favored his cause. 10. The vicious inclined dog was shot before he had bit any of the children.

15.

1. This palace has been the Grand Sultan's Mahomet's. 2. They did not every man cast away the abomination of their eyes. 3. Whose works are these? They are Cicero, the most eloquent of men's. 4. The mighty rivals are now at length agreed. 5. The time of William making the experiment at length arrived. 6. If we alter the situation of any of the words, we shall presently be sensible of the melody suffering. 7. This picture of the king's does not much resemble him. 8. These pictures of the king were sent to him from Italy. 9. I offer observations, that a long and checkered pilgrimage have enabled me to make on man. 10. Clelia is a vain woman, who, if we do not flatter, she will be disgusted.

16.

1. The orators did not forget to enlarge themselves on so popular a subject. 2. He acted conformable with his instructions, and cannot be censured justly. 3. No person could speak stronger, nor behave nobler, than our young advocate, for the cause of true religious toleration. 4. They were studious to ingratiate with those who it was dishonorable to favor. 5. The house framed a remonstrance, where they spoke with great freedom of the king's prerogative. 6. Neither flatter or condemn the rich or the great. 7. Many would exchange gladly their honors, beauty, and riches, for that more quiet and humbler station, which thou art now dissatisfied with. 8. High hopes and florid views is a great enemy to tranquillity. 9. Many persons will not believe but what they are free from prejudices. 10. I will lie me down in peace, and take my rest.

17.

1. This word I have only found in Spenser. 2. The king being apprised of the conspiracy, he fled from Jerusalem. 3. A too great variety of studies dissipate and weaken the mind. 4. James was resolved to not indulge himself in such a cruel amusement. 5. They admired the countryman's as they called him, candor and uprightness. 6. The pleasure or pain of one passion differ from those of another. 7. The court of Spain, who gave the order, were not aware of the consequences. 8. There was much spoke and wrote on each side of the question ; but I have chose to suspend my decision. 9. Religion raises men above themselves ; irreligion sinks them beneath the brutes ; that binds them down to a poor pitiable speck of perishable earth ; this opens for them a prospect to the skies. 10. Temperance and exercise, howsoever little they may be regarded, they are the best means of preserving health.

18.

1. To despise others on account of their poverty, or to value ourselves for our wealth, are dispositions highly culpable. 2. As his misfortunes were the fruit of his own obstinacy, a few persons pitied him. 3. They were judged every man according to their works. 4. Riches is the bane of human happiness. 5. When Garrick appeared, Peter was for some time in doubt

whether it could be him or not. 6. The company was very numerous. 7. Robert Burns' poetry was remarkable. 8. Chambers' Cyclopædia is a valuable work. 9. They were obliged to contribute more than us. 10. The Barons had little more to rely on, besides the power of their families.

19.

1. The sewers must be kept so clear, as the water may run away. 2. Such among us who follow that business should abandon it at once. 3. No body is so sanguine to hope for it. 4. She behaved unkindly than I expected. 5. Agreeable to your request I send this letter. 6. She is exceeding fair. 7. Thomas is not as docile as his sister. 8. There was no other book but this. 9. He died by a fever. 10. My sister and I waited till they were called.

20.

1. The friends and amusements which he preferred corrupted his morals. 2. Henry, though at first he showed an unwillingness, yet afterwards he granted her request. 3. Him and her live very happily together. 4. She invited Jane and I to see her new dress. 5. She uttered such cries that pierced the heart of every one who heard them. 6. Maria is not as clever as her sister Ann. 7. Though he promised never so solemnly, I can not believe him. 8. The full moon was no sooner up, in all its brightness, but he opened to them the gate of paradise. 9. It rendered the progress very slow of the new invention. 10. This book is Thomas', that is James.

21.

1. Who, who has the judgment of a man, would have drawn such an inference? 2. George was the most diligent scholar whom I ever knew. 3. I have observed some children to use deceit. 4. He durst not to displease his master. 5. The hopeless delinquents might, each in their turn, adopt the expostulatory language of Job. 6. Several of our English words, some centuries ago, had different meanings to those they have now. 7. With this booty, he made off to a distant part of the country, where he had reason to believe that neither he nor his master were known. 8. Who is the book for? 9. Which of

the two masters, says Seneca, shall we most esteem? He who strives to correct his scholars by prudent advice and motives of honor, or another who will lash them severely for not repeating their lessons as they ought! 10. But she always behaved with great severity to her maids; and if any one of them were negligent of their duty, or made a slip in their conduct, nothing would serve her but burying the poor girl alive.

22.

1. They that honor me, I will honor. 2. Bring Charles' book with you, when you come. 3. The first Christians of the gentile world made a simple and entire transition from a state as bad, if not worse, than that of entire ignorance, to the Christianity of the New Testament. 4. The Duke had not behaved with that loyalty as was expected. 5. Milton seems to have been well acquainted with his own genius, and to know what it was that nature had bestowed upon him more bountifully than upon others. 6. He only promised me a loan of the book for two days. 7. I once intended to have written a poem. 8. The specimens were furnished sooner than we expected them to have been. The three first were approved, the three last were reserved for a more strict examination. 9. It is then from a cultivation of the perceptive faculties, that we only can attain those powers of conception which are essential to taste. 10. Every one, man or woman, thinks their own opinion is right; if they thought it wrong, it would no longer be their opinion; but there is a wide difference between regarding ourselves infallible, and being firmly convinced of the truth of our creed.

23.

1. Conversation is the business, and let every one that please add their opinion freely. 2. There are many more shining qualities in the mind of man, but there are none so useful, as discretion. 3. Frequent commission of crimes harden the heart. 4. In our earliest youth the contagion of manners are observable. 5. The pyramids of Egypt has stood more than three thousand years. 6. A few pangs of conscience now and then interrupts his pleasure, and whispers to him that he once had better thoughts. 7. There is more cultivators of the

earth than of their own hearts. 8. Nothing but vain and foolish pursuits delight some persons. 9. Not one of those whom thou sees clothed in purple are happy. 10. Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the golden mediocrity.

24.

1. The captain, with a half guilty secret to confess, and with the prospect of a painful and stormy interview before him, entered Mr. Osborne's offices with a most dismal countenance and abashed gait. 2. The girl is not pretty, but she is good natured, which is better than beauty. 3. He sells men, women, and children's shoes. 4. His honor, wealth, and religion were all embarked in the undertaking. 5. Not a house or barn was visible. 6. Your profession is to study and teach the laws of your city. 7. Transitive verbs have an active and passive participle. 8. We were at the market and saw everything there. 9. An idle man is unwilling to seek employment. 10. I shall be happy always to see my friends.

25.

1. Honor and shame from no condition rise. 2. He came on the boat which his friends expected. 3. The affair was managed wisely and with caution. 4. To beg is harder than stealing. 5. The house will either be rented or sold. 6. What use is it to me? 7. Neither he, nor nobody else, ever succeeded by such efforts. 8. Death never spared no one. 9. The naval battle was terrific, nothing never troubled me so much. 10. The mountains are extraordinarily high.



SPECIAL EXERCISES.

Take any one of the foregoing sentences and expand it by adding to any or all of its modifying elements other modifying elements, single words, phrases, and clauses.

Take any one of the sentences and, using the same words, write it in as many different forms as possible, without destroying its primary meaning.

Take any one of the sentences and express the same thought without using any of the words given.

Change the character of any of the sentences by turning simple sentences to complex sentences, and complex sentences to compounds.

Change compound sentences to complex, and complex sentences to simple.

Change declarative sentences to the interrogative and to the negative form.

Change the voices of transitive verbs and rearrange the sentences.

Change the mood and tense of the verbs in a sentence, and rearrange the sentence.



FOURTH PART.

PROSODY.

Prosody treats of PUNCTUATION, FIGURES OF SPEECH, UTTERANCE, and VERSIFICATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing written discourse into sections by means of points, for the purpose of showing the grammatical connection and dependence, and of making the sense more obvious.

Capitals are used for a like purpose, and, therefore, they may with propriety be treated of at the same time with the Points.

The principal grammatical points are five :

1. The COMMA, ,
2. The SEMICOLON, ;
3. The COLON, :
4. The PERIOD, .
5. The INTERROGATION, ?

Besides the five points named, several other characters are used for similar purposes. The most common of these are the following :

- | | |
|------------------|-----|
| The EXCLAMATION, | ! |
| The DASH, | — |
| The PARENTHESIS, | () |
| The BRACKET, | [] |
| The QUOTATION, | “ ” |
| The APOSTROPHE, | ' |

I. THE COMMA.

The Comma marks the smallest of the grammatical divisions of discourse that require a point.

RULE I.

Parenthetical Expressions.—Phrases and single words, used parenthetically, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Phrases and words are parenthetical when they are not essential to the meaning and structure of the sentence in which they stand.

Some of the phrases in common use, which require to be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas, are the following :

in short,	in truth,	to be sure,
in fact,	as it were,	to be brief,
in fine,	as it happens,	after all,
in reality,	no doubt,	you know,
in brief,	in a word,	of course.

Some of the single words used parenthetically, and often separated from the rest of the sentence by commas, are the following :

therefore,	namely,	moreover,
then,	consequently,	surely,
however,	indeed,	accordingly,
perhaps,	too,	finally.

Examples for Practice.

1. Gentleness is in truth the great avenue to real enjoyment.
2. The locomotive bellows as it were from the fury of passion.
3. He knows very well come what may that the note will be paid.
4. He had no doubt great aptitude for learning languages.
5. He went home accordingly and arranged his business in the manner described.
6. There are in truth only two things to be considered namely his honesty and his ability.

7. No nation in short is free from danger.

8. When however the hour for the trial came the man was not to be found.

9. I proceed fourthly to prove the fact from your own admissions.

10. But on the other hand do not suppose that there is no use in trying.

11. The meeting after all was something of a failure.

12. Besides it may be of the greatest importance to you in your business.

RULE II.

Intermediate Expressions.—Clauses and expressions not parenthetical in character, yet so placed as to come between some of the essential parts of the sentence, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Care should be taken to distinguish these intermediate expressions from such as are properly restrictive in their character. An expression is restrictive when it limits the meaning of some particular word to some particular sense. Thus, "The man who plants the field ought to reap the harvest." Here it is not "the man" merely, but "the man who plants the field," that is the subject of "ought." A separation of the relative and its adjuncts from "man," by means of commas, would destroy the sense. The clause, therefore, is restrictive. It limits the meaning to that particular man. But suppose I say, "Joseph, who happened to be in the field at the time, saw the carriage approach, and, in an ecstasy of delight, hastened to meet it." Here, the expression, "who happened to be in the field at the time," is properly a relative clause, not restrictive, and comes under Rule IV.; and the expression, "in an ecstasy of delight," is properly intermediate, and comes under Rule II. The former breaks the continuity between the subject and the predicate; the latter between the two predicates.

Examples for Practice.

1. Classical studies regarded merely as a means of culture are deserving of general attention.

2. The sun with all its train of attendant planets is but a small and inconsiderable portion of the universe.

3. We have endeavored in the preceding paragraph to show the incorrectness of his position.

4. The speaker proceeded with the greatest animation to depict the horrors of the scene.

5. Christianity is in a most important sense the religion of sorrow.

6. A man of great wealth may for want of education and refinement of manner be a mere cipher in society.

7. Charity on whatever side we contemplate it is one of the highest Christian graces.

8. One hour a day steadily given to a particular study will bring in time large accumulations.

RULE III.

Dependent or Conditional Clauses.—A dependent or conditional clause should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma or by commas.

NOTES.

1. Clauses are dependent, when one of them is subject to the other for the completion of the sense.

2. One of the dependent clauses usually begins with *if, unless, until, when, where*, or other word expressive of condition, purpose, cause, time, place, and the like? as, "If you would succeed in business, be honest and industrious."

Examples for Practice.*

1. If you would succeed in business be punctual in observing your engagements.

2. Every man if he would succeed in business must be punctual in observing his engagements.

3. The days in December you know are at their shortest and therefore you must rise by the dawn if you would have much daylight.

4. The index at the end of the book will enable the pupil if

* In punctuating these examples and those which are to follow, insert not only the points required by the rule under consideration, but also those required by the preceding rules.

his memory fail him to discover the particular rule which he needs.

5. The reader should however as he proceeds from sentence to sentence make a note of whatever strikes his attention.

6. The good which you do may not be lost though it may be forgotten.

7. We should in all probability be ashamed of much that we boast of could the world see our real motive.

RULE IV.

Relative Clauses not Restrictive.—Clauses introduced by a relative pronoun, if not restrictive, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.*

NOTES.

1. A comma should be put before the relative, even when used restrictively, if it is immediately followed by a word or a phrase inclosed in commas; as, "Those friends, who, *in the native vigor of his powers*, perceived the dawn of Robertson's future eminence, were at length amply rewarded."

2. A comma should be put before the relative, even when used restrictively, if several words intervene between it and its grammatical antecedent; as, "He preaches most eloquently, who leads the most pious life."

3. *Of which* and *of whom*, even when used restrictively, are preceded by a comma; as, "No thought can be just, of which good sense is not the groundwork."

Examples for Practice.

1. A fierce spirit of rivalry which is at all times a dangerous passion had now taken full possession of him.

2. The spirit which actuated him was a thirst for vengeance.

3. The man of letters who has constantly before him examples of excellence ought himself to be a pattern of excellence.

4. Patriotism consists in loving the country in which we are born.

* See Note under Rule II., page 196, for an explanation of what is meant by restrictive clauses.

5. Civil war is an awful evil of which however history furnishes many examples.

6. No man can be thoroughly proficient in navigation who has never been at sea.

7. The powers which now move the world are the printing-press and the telegraph.

8. America may well boast of her Washington whose character and fame are the common property of the world.

RULE V.

A Continued Sentence consisting of Co-ordinate Sentences.—In a continued sentence, consisting of co-ordinate sentences, the several co-ordinate sentences, if simple in construction, are separated from each other by commas.

Examples for Practice.

1. Crafty men contemn studies simple men admire them and wise men use them.

2. Speak as you mean do as you profess perform what you promise.

3. Cæsar was dead the senators were dispersed all Rome was in confusion.

RULE VI.

Grammatical Expressions in the same Construction forming a Series.—Grammatical expressions in the same construction forming a series should be separated from each other, and from what follows, by commas.

NOTES.

1. A grammatical expression is a collection of words, having some grammatical dependence and connection, but not containing in themselves a predicate.

2. If the expressions are brief, and there are but two of them, connected by *and*, *or*, or *nor*, no comma between them is needed; as, "Hard study and neglect of exercise impair the health." If, however, the two connected sentences differ much in form, it is better to set them off by commas; as, "Hard study, and the entire absence of attention to the matter of diet, bring on disease."

Examples for Practice.

1. Love for study a desire to do right and carefulness in the choice of friends are important traits of character.

2. To cleanse our opinions from falsehood our hearts from malignity and our actions from vice is our chief concern.

3. Did God create for the poor a coarser earth a thinner air a paler sky?

4. Infinite space endless numbers and eternal duration fill the mind with great ideas.

RULE VII.

Words in the same Construction forming a Series.—Words in the same construction, forming a series, admit of the following three cases:

1. There may be a conjunction between each two of the words; as, "Industry and honesty and frugality and temperance are among the cardinal virtues." In this case, none of the words in the series are to be separated by commas.

2. The conjunction may be omitted, except between the last two of the words; as, "Industry, honesty, frugality, and temperance are among the cardinal virtues." In this case, all the words in the series are to be separated from each other by commas.

3. The conjunction may be omitted between the last two words, as well as between the others; as, "Industry, honesty, frugality, temperance, are among the cardinal virtues." In this case, not only all the words of the series are to be separated from each other by commas, but a comma is to be inserted also after the last word, to separate it from what follows.

4. A comma is not in any case to be inserted after the last word of a series, if what follows is only a single word; as, "The good will form hereafter stronger, purer, holier ties."

Examples for Practice.

1. He was brave and pious and patriotic in all his aspirations.

2. He was brave pious and patriotic in all his aspirations.

3. He was brave pious patriotic in all his aspirations.

4. He was a brave pious patriotic man.
5. Aright aleft above below he whirled the rapid sword.
6. The address was beautifully elegantly and forcibly written.
7. We are fearfully wonderfully made.
8. Virtue religion is the one thing needful.
9. Woe woe to the rider that tramples them down.
10. The earth the air the water teem with life.
11. Grand ideas and sentiments elevate and ennoble the mind.

RULE VIII.

Words or Phrases in Pairs.—Words or phrases in pairs take a comma after each pair.

Examples for Practice.

1. Anarchy and confusion poverty and distress desolation and ruin are the consequences of civil war.
2. Truth and integrity kindness and modesty reverence and devotion were all remarked in him.
3. The poor and the rich the weak and the strong the young and the old have one common Father.
4. Eating or drinking laboring or sleeping let us do all in moderation.

RULE IX.

Nouns in Apposition.—A Noun in apposition to some preceding noun or pronoun, and having an adjunct consisting of several words, should, with all its connected words, be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

NOTES.

1. Where the noun put in apposition stands alone, or has only an article before it, no comma is required between the said noun and the word with which it is in apposition; as, "Paul the apostle was a man of energy."
2. A noun following another as a synonym, or as giving additional illustration to the thought, is separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma before and after; as, "The word Poet, meaning a maker, a creator, is derived from the Greek."
3. When a noun is predicated of the noun or pronoun with

which it is in apposition, no comma is required between them ; as, "They have just elected him Governor of the State."

4. After several words containing a description of a person or thing, if the name of the person or thing is added, it should be set off from the rest of the sentence by commas ; as, "The greatest of poets among the ancients, Homer, like the greatest among the moderns, Milton, was blind."

5. A title, whether abbreviated or expressed in full, when annexed to a noun or pronoun, must be set off by commas ; as, "At the request of the Rt. Rev. W. H. Odenheimer, D. D., the ceremony was postponed."

Examples for Practice.

1. We the people of the United States do hereby ordain and establish this Constitution.

2. Virgil the chief poet among the Romans was fond of rural life.

3. To call a man a fool is not to make him one.

4. The chief work of Chaucer the Canterbury Tales suggested to Longfellow the plan of his work the Tales of a Wayside Inn.

5. John Chapman Doctor of Medicine. John Chapman M. D.

RULE X.

The Case Independent.—A noun in the nominative case independent, together with its adjunct words, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma, or by commas.

Examples for Practice.

1. Accept my dear young friends this expression of my regard.

2. I beg sir to acknowledge the receipt of your favor.

3. I rise Mr. President to a point of order.

4. Show pity Lord ! O Lord forgive !

5. Remember sir you cannot have it.

RULE XI.

The Case Absolute.—A clause containing the construction known as the case absolute should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma, or by commas.

Examples for Practice.

1. Then came Jesus the doors being shut and stood in the midst.
2. A state of ease is generally speaking more attainable than a state of pleasure.
3. Shame lost all virtue is lost.
4. His father being dead the prince ascended the throne.
5. I being in the way the Lord led me to the house of my master's brother.

RULE XII.

Inverted Clauses.—Inverted clauses, standing at the beginning of a sentence, are separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

NOTES.

1. The infinitive mood, especially when used to express object or design, is often inverted in this way ; as, "To obtain an education, he was willing to make sacrifices."

2. In making alphabetical catalogues, compound names, such as John Quincy Adams, are usually inverted, that is, the last word in the name, being the principal one, is put first, and is then separated from the other parts of the name by a comma ; as, Adams, John Quincy.

Examples for Practice.

1. Awkward in person he was ill adapted to gain respect.
2. Of all our senses sight is the most important.
3. To supply the deficiency he resorted to a shameful trick.
4. Living in filth the poor cease to respect one another.
5. To confess the truth I never greatly admired him.

RULE XIII.

Ellipsis of the Verb.—In continued sentences, having a common verb, which is expressed in one of the members, but omitted in the others, the ellipsis of the verb is marked by a comma.

Examples for Practice.

1. Reading maketh a full man ; conference a ready man ; writing an exact man.
2. Homer was the greater genius ; Virgil the better artist.

3. Semiramis built Babylon; Dido Carthage; and Romulus Rome.

RULE XIV.

Short Quotations.—A short quotation, or a sentence resembling a quotation, should be preceded by a comma.

Examples for Practice.

1. Patrick Henry began his celebrated speech by saying "It is natural to man to indulge the illusions of hope."

2. A good rule in education is Learn to be slow in forming your opinions.

3. I say There is no such thing as human perfection.

4. Some one justly remarks "It is a great loss to lose an affliction."



II. THE SEMICOLON.

The Semicolon marks a division of a sentence somewhat larger and more complex than that marked by a comma.

RULE I.

Subdivided Members in Compound Sentences.—When a sentence consists of two members, and these members, or either of them, are themselves subdivided by commas, the larger divisions of the sentence should be separated by a semicolon.

NOTES.

1. If the connection between these members is close, the semicolon is not used. The word "when," introducing the first member, indicates this kind of close connection, and prevents ordinarily the use of the semicolon. The Rule itself furnishes an example of the semicolon omitted in a sentence beginning with "when."

2. When the members are considerably complex, they are sometimes separated by a semicolon, even though not subdivided by commas; as, "So sad and dark a story is scarcely to be found in any work of fiction; and we are little disposed to envy the moralist who can read it without being softened."

Examples for Practice.

1. Sparre was sulky and perverse because he was a citizen of a republic.
2. Sparre the Dutch general was sulky and perverse because according to Lord Mahon he was a citizen of a republic.
3. Milton was like Dante a statesman and a lover and like Dante he had been unfortunate in ambition and in love.
4. You may quit the field of business though not the field of danger and though you cannot be safe you may cease to be ridiculous.

RULE II.

Clauses and Expressions having a Common Dependence.—When several clauses or grammatical expressions of similar construction follow each other in a series, all having a common dependence upon some other clause, they are separated from each other by a semicolon, and from the clause on which they all depend, by a comma.

Example.—"Philosophers assert, that nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries."

Examples for Practice.

1. Mr. Croker is perpetually stopping us in our progress through the most delightful narrative in the language to observe that really Dr. Johnson was very rude that he talked more for victory than for truth that his taste for port wine with capilliare in it was very odd that Boswell was impertinent and that it was foolish in Mrs. Thrale to marry the music-master.
2. To give an early preference to honor above gain when they stand in competition to despise every advantage which cannot be attained without dishonest acts to brook no meanness and to stoop to no dissimulations are the indications of a great mind.

RULE III.

Sentences Connected in Meaning, but without Grammatical Dependence.—Sentences following each other, with-

out grammatical dependence, but connected in meaning, are usually separated from each other by semicolons.

Example.—"She presses her child to her heart; she drowns it in her tears; her fancy catches more than an angel's tongue can describe."

Examples for Practice.

1. Stones grow vegetables grow and live animals grow live and feel.

2. The summer is over and gone the winter is here with its frosts and snow the wind howls in the chimney at night the beast in the forest forsakes its lair the birds of the air seek the habitation of men.

3. The temples are profaned the soldier's oath resounds in the house of God the marble pavement is trampled by iron hoofs horses neigh beside the altar.

RULE IV.

The Clause Additional.—When a sentence complete in itself is followed by a clause which is added by way of inference, explanation, or enumeration, the additional clause, if formally introduced by some connecting word, is separated from the main body of the sentence by a semicolon; but, if merely appended without any such connecting word, by a colon.

Examples.—Apply yourself to study; for it will redound to your honor. Apply yourself to study: it will redound to your honor.

Some of the connecting words most commonly used for this purpose are *namely, for, but, yet, to wit*, etc.

The word *as*, when used to connect an example with a rule, should be preceded by a semicolon and followed by a comma.

Examples for Practice.

1. Greece has given us three great historians namely Herodotus Xenophon and Thucydides.

2. Some writers divide the history of the world into four ages viz. the golden age the silver age the bronze age and the iron age.

3. Some writers divide the history of the world into four ages the golden age the silver age the bronze age and the iron age.

4. Cicero in his treatise on morals enumerates four cardinal virtues to wit Fortitude Temperance Justice and Prudence.

RULE V.

A General Term in Apposition to the Particulars under it.—A general term in apposition to several others which are particulars under it is separated from the particulars by a semicolon, and the particulars are separated from each other by commas.

If the enumeration of the particulars is given with much formality, so as to make the several expressions complex, containing commas of their own, then these particulars must be separated from the general term by a colon, and from each other by semicolons; as,—

Adjective Pronouns are divided into three classes; Distributive, Demonstrative, and Indefinite.

Adjective Pronouns are divided into these three classes: first, the Distributive, which are four in number; secondly, the Demonstrative, which are four; and thirdly, the Indefinite, which are nine.



III. THE COLON.

The Colon marks a division of a sentence more nearly complete than a semicolon.

The two principles of the colon have already been given in Rules IV. and V., preceding. The following additional rules are given.

RULE I.

Greater Divisions of Complex Sentences.—When the minor divisions of a complex sentence contain a semicolon, the greater divisions should be separated by a colon; thus,—

As we perceive the shadow to have moved along the dial, but did not perceive it moving; and it appears that the grass has grown, though nobody ever saw it grow: so the advances

we make in knowledge, as they consist of such insensible steps; are only perceivable by the distance.

RULE II.

Before a Quotation.—A colon is used before a direct quotation; thus,—

Speaking of party, Pope makes this remark: “There never was any party, faction, sect, or cabal whatsoever, in which the most ignorant were not the most violent.”

If the quotation is of considerable length, consisting of several sentences, or begins a new paragraph, it should be preceded by both a colon and a dash. Example:—

At the close of the meeting, the president rose and said:—
“Ladies and Gentlemen, it is with extreme reluctance that I address you on this occasion,” etc.

If the quotation is merely some short saying, a comma is sufficient; as, Dr. Thomas Brown says, “The benevolent spirit is as universal as the miseries which are capable of being relieved.”

RULE III.

Yes and No.—The words *yes* and *no*, when in answer to a question, should be followed by a colon, provided the words which follow the *yes* and *no* are a continuation of the answer; as,—

“Can these words add vigor to your hearts? Yes: they can do it; they have often done it.”

Yes and *no* are often followed by some noun in the nominative case independent; as, “Yes, sir,” “Yes, my lords,” In such cases, the colon should come after the nominative; as, “Yes, sir: they can do it.” “Yes, my lords: I am amazed at his lordship’s speech.”

Examples for Practice on the Rules for the Comma, the Semicolon, and the Colon.

[Tell what point is due at each place where this mark ○ occurs, and give the Rule for the same.]

1. Satire always tends to dwarf ○ and it cannot fail to cari-

cature ○ but poetry does nothing ○ if it does not tend to enlarge and exalt ○ and if it does not seek rather to beautify than deform.

2. This is an iambic line ○ in which the first foot is formed of a word and a part of a word ○ the second and third ○ of parts taken from the body or interior of a word ○ the fourth ○ of a part and a whole ○ the fifth ○ of two complete words.

3. Melissa ○ like the bee ○ gathers honey from every weed ○ while Arachne ○ like the spider ○ sucks poison from the fairest flowers.

4. Are these to be conquered by all Europe united? No ○ sir ○ no united nation can be ○ that has the spirit to resolve not to be conquered.

5. Be our plain answer this ○ The throne we honor is the people's choice ○ the laws we reverence are our brave fathers' legacy ○ the faith we follow teaches us to live in bonds of charity with all mankind ○ and die with hope of bliss beyond the grave.

6. The discourse consisted of two parts ○ in the first was shown the necessity of exercise ○ in the second ○ the advantages that would result from it.



IV. THE PERIOD.

The Period marks the completion of the sentence.

RULE I.

Complete Sentences.—Sentences which are complete in sense, and not connected in construction with what follows, and not exclamatory or interrogative in their character, should be followed by a period.

RULE II.

After Abbreviations.—A period is used after all abbreviated words.

NOTES.

1. The most common method of abbreviation is to use the first letter of a word for the whole word, as B. Franklin for

Benjamin Franklin. Sometimes, in abbreviating the word, the first letter is doubled; as, p. for page, pp. for pages, M. for Monsieur, MM. for Messieurs. In such cases a period is not inserted between the two letters which represent the plural of one word. This explains why there is no period between the two L's in the title LL.D. (Legum Doctor), the LL. standing for one word in the plural, and the D. for the other word in the singular. Sometimes a word is abbreviated by taking the first two or three letters, as Eng. for England; sometimes by taking the first letter and the last, as Wm. for William, Ca. for California; sometimes by taking the first letter and some leading letter in the middle of the word, as Mo. for Missouri, MS. for manuscript. In these cases, the period is to be used only at the end of the combined letters. In the case last cited, the last letter of the combination is doubled when the word is plural; as, MS. manuscript, MSS. manuscripts.

2. When an abbreviated word comes at the end of a sentence, it is not necessary to use two periods. One point is sufficient to mark both the abbreviation and the end of the sentence. But if the construction requires some other point, as the comma, semicolon, colon, interrogation, etc., both points must be inserted, one to mark the grammatical construction, the other to mark the abbreviation; as, "He reported the death of John Chapman, M. D." "John Chapman, M. D., at the early age of twenty-four, was carried off by disease."

3. When two or more abbreviated titles follow each other, they must be separated by commas, just as they would be, if written out in full. Thus: "Thomas Sumner, Doctor of Divinity, Doctor of Laws, Bishop of London," abbreviated, becomes, "Thomas Sumner, D. D., LL.D., Bp. of London."

4. Proper names are sometimes permanently shortened, the short form being meant, not as an ordinary abbreviation, but as the real and true name. This was the case with the celebrated dramatist, Ben Jonson. We have analogous and more familiar instances in Ned Buntline, Bill Smith, Tom Jones, etc. In such cases, no period should be inserted to mark the abbreviation.

5. In like manner, various other abbreviations which are in very familiar use acquire the character of integral words, not requiring the period after them to denote abbreviations. They

become nouns, with a singular and a plural. Thus, in England, Cantab (an abridgement of Cantabrigiensis, and meaning an alumnus of Cambridge University), has become a noun, the body of the alumni being called Cantabs, and any one of them a Cantab. In like manner, we have Jap and Japs for Japanese, consol and consols for consolidated loan or consolidated loans of the British Government, three per cents, five per cents, etc.

6. The word cent, in the combination per cent, had become thoroughly established as an integral word, and was almost universally written and printed without the mark of abbreviation; but of late years, some writers, in a spirit of hypercriticism, have insisted on restoring the period after cent to show that it is an abbreviation of centum. They ought in consistency to put a period after quart, to show that it is an abbreviation of quarta, or after cab, because it is abbreviated from cabriolet.

7. The letters of the alphabet, a, b, c, A, B, C, etc., when used in geometry and other sciences to represent quantities, are not abbreviations, and should not be so marked by the insertion of a period.

8. When the letters of the alphabet are used to represent numerals, it is customary to insert a period at the end of each completed numeral; as, Psalms iv., xxi., lxxxvi., cxix., etc. When dates are thus expressed, the whole number is separated into periods of thousands, hundreds, and the portion less than a hundred; as, M.DCCC.XCIX. for the year one thousand, nine hundred and ninety-nine, or 1899.

9. The Arabic figures, 1, 2, 3, etc., and the various marks used by printers, as § for section, ¶ for paragraph, etc., are not abbreviations, but stand for whole words, and therefore do not require the period. The period is used, however, before decimals, and between pounds and shillings; as, £2. 10s. 4d. sterling was worth \$13.719 at the rate of exchange then prevailing.

10. The words 4to, 8vo, 12mo, etc., are not strictly abbreviations, the figures representing a part of the word. If the letters were written in place of the figures which represent them, it would be seen at once that the words are complete, *quar-to*, *octa-vo*, *duodeci-mo*, etc. Periods therefore are not required for such words. The same rule will apply to 1st, 2dly, 3dly, etc.

Examples for Practice.

[Tell what Point is needed at each place where this mark ○ occurs, and give the Rule for the same.]

1. The laws of Phoroneus were established 1807 ○ B ○ C
○ ○ those of Lycurgus ○ 884 ○ B ○ C ○ ○ of Draco ○
623 ○ B ○ C ○ ○ of Solon ○ 587 ○ B ○ C ○ ○ See chap ○
vii ○ § xiv ○ ¶ 7 ○ p ○ 617 ○

2. The reader is requested to refer to the following passages
of Scripture ○ Ex ○ xx ○ 18 ○ Deut ○ xx ○ 19 ○ 2 ○
Sam ○ xix ○ 2 ○

3. Bought ○ on 9 mos credit ○ the following articles ○ 4
yds ○ 3 qrs ○ 2 n ○ of broadcloth at \$12 a yd ○ ○ 6 gals ○
1 pt ○ 2 gi ○ of vinegar at 65 cts ○ a gal ○ ○ and 3½ cords of
wood at \$7.50 a cord.

4. Excellence in conversation depends ○ in a great meas-
ure ○ on the attainments which one has made ○ if ○ there-
fore ○ education is neglected ○ conversation will become
trifling ○ if perverted ○ corrupting,

5. Dryden's page is a natural field ○ rising into inequali-
ties ○ and diversified by the varied exuberance of abundant
vegetation ○ Pope's is a velvet lawn ○ shaven by the scythe ○
and levelled by the roller.



V. THE INTERROGATION POINT.

An Interrogation Point is used for marking questions.

In regard to the portion of discourse marked off by it, the Interrogation Point is equivalent most commonly to a period; but it may be equivalent to a colon, a semicolon, or a comma.

It is a question of some importance to know, in each case, to which of these four points the interrogation point is equivalent, because upon this depends the propriety of using, or not using, a capital after it. When there is, in that particular construction, but one interrogation point, it is always equivalent to a period, and should be followed by a capital. When, however, there is a succession of questions, following each other in a series, without any affirmative sentences inter-

vening, the interrogation point sometimes represents sections of discourse less than a period. The way to determine to which class the particular question belongs is to change the construction into an affirmative form. It will, in one case, be resolved into a series of independent sentences, separated by periods; in the other, into a connected or continued sentence, with co-ordinate members separated by commas, semicolons, or colons. Example:

“Who will bring me into the strong city? who will lead me into Edom? Wilt not thou, O God, who hast cast us off? and wilt not thou, O God, go forth with our hosts?” (Ps. 108: 10, 11.) Change to the affirmative form. “Some one will bring me into the strong city; some one will lead me into Edom. Thou, O God, who hast cast us off, wilt do it; thou, O God, wilt go forth with our hosts.”

“Shall a man obtain the favor of Heaven by impiety? by murder? by falsehood? by theft?” Affirmatively: “A man cannot obtain the favor of Heaven by impiety, by murder, by falsehood, by theft.”

RULE.

Direct Questions.—The interrogation point should be placed at the end of every direct question.

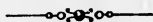
NOTES.

1. A direct question is one in regular form, requiring, or at least admitting an answer; as, “Why do you neglect your duty?” An indirect question is one that is merely reported or spoken of; as, “He inquired why you neglected your duty.”

2. When there is a succession of questions, having a common grammatical dependence on some preceding word or clause, each question forming by itself an incomplete sentence, some writers place an interrogation point at the end of the series, and separate the several members by a dash, or perhaps by a comma. This method of punctuation is not correct. Each question, no matter how short or broken, should have its own point. See the example immediately preceding the Rule.

3. Sometimes a question is intended, although the words are not put in the usual interrogative form. Thus: “You will

come this afternoon?" In such cases the interrogation point should be used, as in this example, although the sentence may be declarative in its form.



VI. THE EXCLAMATION POINT.

The Exclamation Point is used for marking strong emotion.

In regard to the portion of discourse set off by it, the exclamation point, like the interrogation point, is equivalent commonly to a period; but it may be equivalent to a colon, a semicolon, or a comma. The same considerations govern here that govern in the case of the Interrogation.

RULE I.

After Strong Emotion.—The exclamation point must be used at the close of every sentence, clause, or grammatical expression, intended to convey strong emotion.

Inexperienced and weak writers are apt to deal largely in the use of the exclamation point, as if to make up for the feebleness of the thought by mere tricks of punctuation. Young writers therefore should be on their guard in this matter, and not use the exclamation point unless there is some real and strong emotion to be expressed.

RULE II.

After an Interjection.—The exclamation point must be used after an interjection; as, Ah me!

NOTES.

1. Where the interjection does not stand by itself, but forms part of a sentence, clause, or expression, the exclamation point should be placed at the end of the whole expression, and not immediately after the interjection; as, "O wretched state! O bosom black as death!"

2. Sometimes *oh* is grammatically separable from the words following it, though the emotion runs through the whole. In

that case, there should be a comma after the *oh*, and the exclamation point at the end of the whole expression; as, "Oh, where shall rest be found!"

3. When an interjection is repeated several times, the words are separated from each other by a comma, the exclamation being put only after the last; as, "Fie, fie, fie! pah, pah, pah! give me an ounce of civet, good apothecary, to sweeten my imagination."

4. Two of the interjections, *eh* and *hey*, are sometimes uttered in a peculiar tone, so as to ask a question. In that case they should be followed by the interrogation point; as, "You thought you would not be found out, eh?"

RULE III.

More than One Exclamation Point.—Where the emotion to be expressed is very strong, more than one exclamation point is sometimes used; as, "That man virtuous!! You might as well preach to me of the virtue of Judas Iscariot!!"

This mode of repeating the exclamation point is much used in burlesque and satire.

Examples for Practice.

[Tell what Point is needed in each place where this mark ○ occurs, and give the Rule for the same.]

1. Why ○ for so many a year ○ has the poet wandered amid the fragments of Athens and Rome ○ and paused ○ with strange and kindling feelings ○ amid their broken columns ○ their mouldering temples ○ their deserted plains ○

2. Greece ○ indeed ○ fell ○ but how did she fall ○ Did she fall like Babylon ○ Did she fall like Lucifer ○ never to rise again ○

3. Have you eyes ○ Could you on this fair mountain leave to feed ○ and batten on this moor ○ Ha ○ have you eyes ○ You cannot call it love ○ for ○ at your age ○ the hey-day in the blood is tame, it's humble, and waits upon the judgment ○ and what judgment would step from this to this ○

4. Charge ○ Chester ○ charge ○ on ○ Stanley ○ on ○

5. King Charles ○ forsooth ○ had so many private virtues ○ And had James no private virtues ○ Was even Oliver Crom-

well ○ his bitterest enemies themselves being judges ○ destitute of private virtues ○ And what ○ after all ○ are the virtues ascribed to Charles ○



VII. THE DASH.

The Dash is used chiefly, either to mark a sudden change or interruption in the structure of the sentence, or to mark some rhetorical or elocutionary pause.

RULE I.

Construction Changed.—A dash is used where the construction of the sentence is abruptly broken off or changed.

Example.—Was there ever a bolder captain of a more valiant band? Was there ever—but I scorn to boast.

RULE II.

Unexpected Change in Sentiment.—The dash is sometimes used to mark a sudden and unexpected change in the sentiment.

Example.—He had no malice in his mind—
No ruffles on his shirt.

RULE III.

Emphatic Generalization.—A dash is sometimes used to mark the transition from a succession of particulars to some emphatic general expression which includes them all.

Example.—He was witty, learned, industrious, plausible,—*everything* but honest.

RULE IV.

A Series Dependent upon a Concluding Clause.—When there is a long series of clauses or expressions, all dependent upon some concluding clause, it is usual, in passing from the preceding part of the passage to that upon which the whole depends, to mark the transition by inserting a dash, in addition to the comma.

Example.—The great men of Rome, her beautiful legends,

her history, the height to which she rose, and the depth to which she fell,—these make up one-half of the student's ideal world.

The most common example of this use of the dash is where the grammatical subject or nominative is loaded with numerous adjuncts, so that there is danger of its being lost sight of when the verb is introduced. The insertion of the dash here seems to give the mind an opportunity of going back to the main subject; as, "Every step in the attainment of physical power; every new trait of intelligence, as they one by one arise in the infantile intellect, like the glory of night, starting star by star into the sky—is hailed with a heart-burst of rapture and surprise."

RULE V.

Rhetorical Repetition.—When a word or an expression is repeated for rhetorical purposes, the construction being begun anew, a dash should be inserted before each such repetition.

Example.—Shall I, who was born, I might almost say, but certainly brought up, in the tent of my father, that most excellent general—shall I, the conqueror of Spain and Gaul, and not only of the Alpine nations, but of the Alps themselves—shall I compare myself with this half-year captain?

Note.—This kind of repetition is sometimes called by elocutionists the *echo*.

RULE VI.

Rhetorical or Elocutionary Pause.—A dash is sometimes used to mark a significant pause, where there is no break in the grammatical construction.

Example.—You have given the command to a person of illustrious birth, of ancient family, of innumerable statues, but—of no experience.

RULE VII.

Reflex Apposition.—Words at the end of a sentence, and standing somewhat detached, and referring back by apposition to preceding parts of the sentence, should be separated from the previous portions by a dash.

Examples.—The four greatest names in English poetry are among the first we come to,—Chaucer, Spenser, Shakespeare, and Milton.

Kings and their subjects, masters and their slaves, find a common level in two places,—at the cross, and in the grave.

Note.—The dash here is said by some to indicate the omission of *namely*, or *that is*. It is true that one of these expressions might be inserted in most cases that come under this rule, but the passage would thereby lose in rhetorical force. The dash, in this case, as in Rule VI., is in fact, purely elocutionary.

RULE VIII.

The Dash Parenthetical.—Parenthetical expressions are sometimes included between two dashes, instead of the usual signs of parenthesis.

Examples.—The smile of a child—always so ready when there is no distress, and so soon recurring when that distress has passed away—is like an opening of the sky, showing heaven beyond.

The archetypes, the ideal forms of things without—if not, as some philosophers have said, in a metaphysical sense, yet in a moral sense,—exist within us.

NOTES.

1. If, when the parenthetical part is removed from a sentence like one of these, the portions remaining require no point between them, no points besides the dashes will be required at the beginning and end of the parenthetical expression. Thus, in the first of the foregoing examples, if the parenthetical part be left out, the remaining portion will read, "The smile of a child is like an opening," etc. But if the parenthetical part be left out of the second example, it will read, "The archetypes, the ideal forms of things without, exist within us," with a comma at the place where each of the dashes comes in. In such cases, there must be two commas in the parenthetical form of the sentence, namely, one before each of the dashes, as in the example.

2. If the parenthetical words express an interrogation or an exclamation, they must be followed by an interrogation point

or an exclamation point, before the concluding dash ; as, Religion—who can doubt it?—is the noblest theme for the exercise of the intellect.

3. The question, whether the marks which separate parenthetical words from the rest of the sentence shall be dashes, commas, or marks of parenthesis, is left a good deal to the fancy of the writer. The subject will be more particularly explained in the section on the Parenthesis.

RULE IX.

Question and Answer.—If question and answer, instead of beginning separate lines, are run into a paragraph, they should be separated by a dash.

Example.—Who made you?—God. What else did God make?—God made all things. Why did God make you and all things?—God made all things for his own glory.

RULE X.

Omissions.—The dash is used to mark the omissions of letters or figures ; as,—

General W——n captured the Hessians at Trenton.

Matt. 9 : 1—6. [N. B. This is equivalent to Matt. 9 : 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.]

RULE XI.

Examples on a New Line.—A dash should follow *as* and *thus* when the example following them begins a new line.

For example, see the preceding rule.

Examples for Practice.

[Tell what point is needed at each place where this mark ○ occurs, and give the rule for the same.]

1. Almost all kinds of raw material extracted from the interior of the earth ○ metals ○ coals ○ precious stones ○ and the like ○ are obtained from mines differing in fertility.

2. Each of these great and ever memorable struggles ○ Saxon against Norman ○ villein against lord ○ Roundhead against Cavalier ○ Dissenter against Churchman ○ Manchester against Old Sarum ○ was ○ in its own order and season ○

a struggle on the result of which were staked the dearest interests of the human race.

3. Here lies the great ○ False marble ○ where ○ Nothing but sordid dust lies here ○

4. Greece ○ Carthage ○ Rome ○ where are they ○

5. "I plunged right into the debate ○ and " ○ "Did not say a word to the point ○ of course " ○

6. "How are you ○ Trepid ○ How do you feel to-day ○ Mr. Trepid?" "A great deal worse than I was ○ thank you ○ almost dead ○ I am obliged to you" ○ "Why ○ Trepid ○ what is the matter with you" ○ "Nothing ○ I tell you ○ nothing in particular ○ but a great deal is the matter with me in general" ○



VIII. THE PARENTHESIS.

The Marks of Parenthesis are used to inclose words which have little or no connection with the rest of the sentence.

NOTES.

1. We must distinguish between parenthesis and marks of parenthesis. The parenthesis is the sentence, or part of a sentence, that is inserted into another sentence. The marks of parenthesis are the two curved lines which inclose the words thus let in. The term, *marks of parenthesis*, to indicate these curved lines, is preferred to the term *parentheses*. Parentheses means properly parenthetical sentences, not marks of parenthesis.

2. Sometimes commas, and sometimes dashes, are used instead of the curved lines, to inclose words that are of a parenthetical character, and it is not always easy to determine when to use one of these modes, and when to use another. It may be observed, in general, that the curved lines mark the greatest degree of separation from the rest of the sentence; the dashes, the next greatest; and the commas, the least separation of all.

Rule for Parenthesis.

Words inserted in the body of a sentence, and nearly or

quite independent of the sentence in meaning and construction, should be inclosed with the marks of parenthesis.

NOTES.

1. A very common example of the use of marks of parenthesis is in the reports of speeches, where a person is referred to, but not named. In the actual delivery of the speech, the person meant is sufficiently indicated by the speaker's pointing to him, or looking at him, or by other significant gesture. But as this cannot be transferred to the written or printed page, the reporter usually supplies its place by inserting the name of the person meant, and the name thus inserted by the reporter is inclosed by marks of parentheses. Thus: "After the very lucid exposition of the matter by the gentleman opposite to me (Mr. Stuart), it will not be necessary for me to say much in defence of this part of the subject."

2. In reporting speeches, marks of parenthesis are used to inclose exclamations of approbation or disapprobation on the part of the audience; as, "My lords, I am amazed at his lordship's declaration (hear, hear). Yes, my lords: I am amazed, that one in his position could so far forget the proprieties of debate."

3. Marks of parenthesis are used to inclose a query, or comment of any kind, made by the one who is reporting, copying, or quoting the words of another; as, "The Romans were the first (indeed?) who learned the art of navigation."

4. In strict accuracy, the marks in these three cases (Notes 1, 2, 3) should be brackets, because the matter thus inserted is really an interpolation by the reporter. But custom has sanctioned the use of marks of parenthesis in these cases. [See Section IX., Brackets, Note 2.]

5. In scientific works, marks of parenthesis are used to inclose figures or letters that are employed in enumerating a list of particulars; as, "The unlawfulness of suicide appears from the following considerations: (1) Suicide is unlawful on account of its general consequences. (2) Because it is a direct violation of the law."

6. If no point would be required between the parts of a sentence, in case there were no parenthesis there, then no points should be used at that place, in addition to the marks of

parenthesis; as, "The Egyptian style of architecture (see Dr. Pocock's work) was apparently the mother of the Greek."

7. If a point would be required between the parts of a sentence, in case no parenthesis were there, then, when the parenthesis is inserted, said point should be inserted also, and should be placed after the second mark of parenthesis; as, "Pride, in some disguise or other, is the most ordinary spring of action." "Pride, in some disguise or other (often a secret to the proud man himself), is the most ordinary spring of action."

8. If the parenthetical part of a sentence requires at the end a point of its own, this point should come inside of the last mark of parenthesis, and the point belonging to the main sentence should come before the first mark of parenthesis; as, "While the Christian desires the approbation of his fellow-men, (and why should he not desire it?) he disdains to receive their goodwill by dishonorable means."



IX. BRACKETS.

Brackets are used to inclose in a sentence a word, or words, which do not form part of the original composition.

NOTES.

1. Brackets are somewhat like the marks of parenthesis in form, one, however, being angular, the other curved, and are also in some respects like the latter in signification and use.

2. Brackets are used to inclose a sentence, or a part of a sentence, within the body of another sentence, and thus far are like the marks of parenthesis. But the matter included within brackets is entirely independent of the sentence, and so differs from what is merely parenthetical. Further, the matter within the brackets is usually inserted by one writer to correct or add to what has been written by another, while the parenthesis is a part of the original composition, and is written by the same person that wrote the rest of the sentence.

3. The comma before and after, the dash before and after, the marks of parenthesis, and the brackets, all have something in common. They all are used to include matter which is

inserted in the body of a sentence, and which is more or less independent of the sentence, and extraneous to it. They indicate increasing degrees of independence and extraneousness, about in the order in which they have just been named, the comma before and after showing least, and the brackets showing most, of this independence.

Rule for the Use of Brackets.

In correcting or modifying the expression of another, by inserting words of our own, the words thus inserted should be inclosed in brackets.

Examples.—A soft answer turn [turns] away wrath.

The number of our days are [is] with thee.

The letter [which] you wrote me on Saturday came duly to hand.

The captain had several men [who] died on the voyage.

NOTES.

1. Brackets are used in critical editions of ancient authors to indicate that in the opinion of the editor the words so inclosed are an interpolation, and do not belong to the original. The words thus bracketed are not interpolated by the editor, but the editor takes this means of indicating that they have been interpolated by somebody else. He fears to leave the words out altogether, because they have stood so long in the text, but he takes this means of showing that he considers them spurious.

2. Brackets are used in dictionaries to separate the punctuation, or the etymology of a word, or some incidental remark about it, from the other parts of the explanation. Thus: Resemblant [Fr. *resembler*, to resemble.] Having resemblance. [Rare.]

3. In regard to the use of points before and after the brackets, and the punctuation of any sentence or clause within the brackets, the same rules will apply that have been given in regard to the marks of parenthesis.

Examples on all the Preceding Rules.

1. The last words of Raleigh were ○ “Why dost thou not strike ○ Strike ○ man ○” ○ To the executioner ○ who was

pausing ○ The last of the Duke of Buckingham ○ "Traitor ○ thou hast killed me ○" ○ To the assassin Felton ○ The last of Charles II. ○ "Don't let poor Nelly starve ○" ○ Referring to Nell Gwynne ○ The last of William III. ○ "Can this last long ○" ○ To his physician ○ The last of Locke ○ "Cease now ○" ○ To Lady Markham ○ who had been reading the Psalms to him ○

2. If we exercise right principles ○ and we cannot have them unless we exercise them ○ they must be perpetually on the increase ○

3. Are you still ○ I fear you are ○ far from being comfortably settled ○

4. Know then this truth ○ enough for man to know ○
Virtue alone is happiness below ○

5. The Egyptian style of architecture ○ see Dr. Pocock ○ not his discourses ○ but his prints ○ was apparently the mother of the Greek ○



X. QUOTATION MARKS.

A Quotation is the introduction into one's discourse of a word or of words uttered by some one else.

The marks of quotation are two inverted commas ("") at the beginning, and two apostrophes (") at the end, of the portion quoted.

RULE I.

Words from Another Author.—A word or words introduced from some other author should be inclosed by quotation marks.

NOTES.

1. It is proper for a writer to use quotation marks in introducing words from some other writings of his own, if the words thus introduced are intended as a citation.

2. A writer, in quoting from himself, may use his option in regard to the use of quotation marks. It depends upon whether he does, or does not, wish to make a reference to his previous writings. We have no such option, however, when

using the words of other people. To use the words of others without acknowledging them to be such, is plagiarism, which is only another name for *stealing*. It is, however, a breach of the Decalogue, rather than of Grammar.

3. Sometimes, in quoting from another, we wish for convenience to give the substance only of his meaning, but not his exact words. In such a case, we may show that the wording has been thus altered, by using only one inverted comma and one apostrophe, instead of two. Thus: The last six commandments are, ‘Honor thy father and thy mother, Thou shalt not kill, Thou shalt not commit adultery, Thou shalt not steal, Thou shalt not bear false witness, Thou shalt not covet.’ Unless we indicate in this way, or by express remark, that the phraseology has been altered, we should in quoting be careful to give the exact words of the author, especially where the quotation is from Holy Scripture. Any alteration whatever in the words inclosed in quotation marks is regarded as dishonest, unless in some manner we distinctly indicate that such alteration has been made.

4. Quotation marks are not proper when we state the opinion of others in language of our own; as, Socrates said that he believed the soul to be immortal. If this expression be changed, so as to give the exact words of Socrates, then the quotation marks will be needed; as, Socrates said, “I believe the soul to be immortal.”

5. Short phrases from foreign languages are usually printed in italics, instead of being enclosed in quotation marks; as, He believed in the principle of *nil admirari*. Titles and names of various kinds are sometimes marked in this way; as, *The Tempest* is regarded by some as one of Shakspeare’s earliest plays. This practice, however, is not so much in vogue as it was, the tendency at present being to use, in all such cases, the quotation marks instead of italics.

RULE II.

A Quotation within a Quotation.—When a quotation incloses within it another quotation, the external quotation has the double marks, and the one included has only the single marks.

Examples.—It has been well said, “The command, ‘Thou shalt not kill,’ forbids many crimes besides that of murder.”

Some one has said, “What an argument for prayer is contained in the words, ‘Our Father which art in heaven!’”

RULE III.

Consecutive Paragraphs Quoted.—When several consecutive paragraphs are quoted, the inverted commas should be placed at the beginning of each paragraph, but the apostrophes only at the end of the whole quotation.

NOTES.

1. If the several paragraphs thus quoted do not come together in the original, but are taken from different parts of the book or essay, each paragraph should begin and end with quotation marks.

2. If the extract forms but one paragraph, but is made up of several detached portions taken from different parts of the book or essay quoted, the fact that the extracts are not continuous may be shown, either by inserting points (. . .) at each place where there is a break, or by enclosing each detached portion with quotation marks.

3. In some publications, the inverted commas are inserted at the beginning of each line of a quotation. The *London Times* always punctuates in this way. So do some American newspapers. The practice is more common in England than in America, but as it encumbers and disfigures the page without any real advantage, the tendency in both countries is towards the simpler method described in Rule III.

Examples for Practice.*

1. This definition ○ Dr ○ Latham ○ from whom we borrowed it ○ illustrates ○ in his work on the ○ English Language ○ p ○ 359 ○ by the expression ○ a sharp-edged instrument ○ , which means an instrument with sharp edges.

2. The words ○ all-wise ○ , ○ incense-breaking ○ , ○ book-seller ○ , and ○ noble-man ○ are compounds.

3. ○ There is but one object ○ ○ says Augustine ○ ○ greater than the soul ○ and that one is its Creator ○ ○

4. ○ Let me make the ballads of a nation ○ ○ said Fletcher
of Saltoun ○ ○ and I care not who makes the laws ○ ○

5. When Fenelon's library was on fire ○ ○ God be praised
○ ○ said he ○ ○ that it is not the dwelling of a poor man ○ ○



CAPITALS.

RULE 1. First Word in a Sentence.—The first word in a sentence should begin with a capital.

RULE 2. First Word of an Example.—The first word of a sentence or clause which is given as an example should begin with a capital; as, "Temperance promotes health."

RULE 3. First Word of a Direct Question.—The first word of a direct question should begin with a capital. Examples:—

(Direct.) His words are, "Why do you not study the lesson?"

(Indirect.) He desires to know why you do not study the lesson.

RULE 4. First Word of a Direct Quotation.—The first word of a direct quotation should begin with a capital. Examples:—

(Direct.) Plutarch says, "Lying is the vice of slaves."

(Indirect.) Plutarch says that lying is the vice of slaves.

RULE 5. First Word after a Period.—The first word after a period, except when used as an abbreviation, should begin with a capital.

RULE 6. After an Interrogation.—A capital should follow the mark of interrogation, when equivalent to a period, as it usually is.

RULE 7. Numbered Clauses.—Clauses, when separately numbered, should begin with a capital, though not separated from each other by a period; as,—

This writer asserts, 1. That Nature is unlimited in her operations; 2. That she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve;

3. That knowledge will always be progressive, and, 4. That all future generations will continue to make discoveries.

RULE 8. Quoting Titles.—In quoting the title of a book, every noun, pronoun, adjective, and adverb should begin with a capital; as, “Sparks’s Life of Washington.”

RULE 9. The pronoun I, and the Interjection O, should always be capital letters.

RULE 10. Poetry.—The first word of every line of poetry should begin with a capital.

RULE 11. Names of God.—All names and titles of God should begin with a capital; as, Jehovah, Father, Creator, Almighty.

NOTE 1. When any name usually applied to the Supreme Being is used for a created being, it does not begin with a capital; as, “The Lord is a great God above all *gods*.” “Lord of *lords*.”

NOTE 2. Providence is sometimes used to mean God, that is, the One who provides for us; Heaven likewise is used to mean the One who reigns in heaven. In such cases the word should begin with a capital. But if only God’s providential care, or his place of abode is meant, a capital is not needed.

NOTE 3. Such adjectives as *eternal, universal, heavenly, divine*, when applied to God, need not begin with a capital, unless something in the particular instance makes them emphatic. Custom, however, has made capitals necessary in the following instances: Almighty God, Infinite One, Supreme Being, First Cause.

NOTE 4. When an attribute of God is expressed, not by an adjective, as in the instances above, but by a noun dependent upon another noun, as, “Father of mercies,” the dependent noun in such combinations does not require a capital.

NOTE 5. “Son of God,” as applied to our Saviour, requires that both nouns should begin with a capital; “Son of man” requires no capital for the latter noun.

NOTE 6. Great diversity prevails in regard to the pronouns, when referring to God. Some authors, in printing a hymn or a prayer, make the page fairly bristle with capitals, every pronoun that refers in any manner to God being decorated in that manner. The first stage of this fancy is that which prints in

this manner, Thou, Thine, Thee. In the second stage, He, His, him are thus treated. The last and highest stage shows itself in the relative pronouns, Who, Whose, and Whom. In the standard editions of the English Bible, the pronouns, when referring to God, are never printed in this way, not even in forms of direct address to the Deity; as, "But thou, O Lord, be merciful unto me."

RULE 12. Proper Names.—All proper names should begin with capitals; as, Jupiter, Mahomet, Brahma, Pompey, Lake Erie, Monday, Good Friday, Rome, China, France.

NOTE 1. The word *devil*, when used to designate Satan, should begin with a capital; in all other cases with a small letter; as, "The Devil and his angels." "The devils also believe and tremble."

NOTE 2. The same persons who capitalize the first letter of the pronouns when referring to God, capitalize the first letter of *heaven* and *hell* when referring to the abodes of the blessed and of the lost. But such is not the usage in the Bible, which is the most carefully printed book in the language. "If I ascend up into heaven, thou art there: if I make my bed in hell, behold, thou art there."

NOTE 3. *North, South, East, and West*, when used to denote certain parts of the country or of the world, should begin with a capital; as, "This man evidently is a native of the West." But when they denote merely geographical direction, they should begin with a small letter; as, "Ohio lies west of the Alleghanies."

NOTE 4. When a name is compounded of a proper noun and of some other word which is not a proper noun, connected by a hyphen, the part which is not a proper noun begins with a capital, if it precedes the hyphen, but with a small letter, if it follows the hyphen; as, Pre-Adamite, New-England, Sunday-school.

RULE 13. Words derived from Proper Names.—Words derived from proper names should begin with a capital; as, Mahometan, Brahmin, Christian, Roman; French, Spanish, Grecian; to Christianize, to Judaize, to Romanize.

NOTE 1. The names of religious sects, whether derived from

proper names or otherwise, begin with a capital; as, Christians, Pagans, Jews, Gentiles, Lutherans, Calvinists, Protestants, Catholics. The names of political parties likewise begin with capitals; as, Democrats, Republicans, Radicals, Conservatives.

NOTE 2. Some words, derived originally from proper names, have by long and familiar usage lost all reference to their origin, and are printed like ordinary words, without capitals; as, *simony*, *damask*, *jalap*, *godlike*, *philippic*, *to hector*, *to galvanize*, *to japan*, etc.

RULE 14. Titles of Honor and Office.—Titles of honor and office should begin with a capital; as, The President of the United States, His Honor the Mayor of Philadelphia, President Madison, Queen Victoria, Sir Robert Murchison, Your Royal Highness.

NOTE.—The term *father*, when used to denote one of the early Christian writers, is always printed with a capital; as, “Chrysostom and Augustine are among the most voluminous of the Fathers.”

RULE 15. Subjects first Introduced.—In works of a scientific character, when the subject of a particular section is defined, or is first introduced, it begins with a capital; as, “A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.”

RULE 16. The Bible.—A capital is always used for the terms ordinarily employed to designate the Bible, or any particular part or book of the Bible; as, The Holy Bible, the Sacred Writings, the Old Testament, the Acts of the Apostles, the Revelation. In like manner, a capital is used in giving the names of other sacred writings, as the Koran, the Zend Avesta, the Puranas.

RULE 17. Words of Special Importance.—Words describing the great events of history, or extraordinary things of any kind, which have acquired a distinctive name, begin with a capital; as, the Reformation, the Revolution, the war of Independence, the Middle Ages, Magna Charta, the Gulf Stream.

RULE 18. Personification.—In cases of strongly marked personification, the noun personified should begin with a capital; as,—

“Hope for a season bade the world farewell,
And Freedom shrieked as Kosciusko fell.” *

Miscellaneous Examples for Practice.

[Punctuate the following sentences, and make the necessary corrections in regard to capitals, giving your reasons for each alteration.]

1. Charles notwithstanding the delay had left england to work his way as best he might out of his Difficulties
2. the scots therefore at the break of day entered the Castle
3. Fashion is for the most part the ostentation of Riches
4. besides if you labor in moderation it will conduce to Health as well as to Wealth
5. Sir Peter Carew for some unknown reason had written to ask for his pardon
6. The Man when He saw this departed
7. Elizabeth who had been requested to attend was not present
8. The frost had set in the low damp ground was hard the Dykes were frozen
9. she thought the isle that gave her birth the sweetest mildest land on earth
10. Give me a sanctified and just a charitable and humble a religious and contented spirit
11. The ocelot a beautiful and striped fiend hisses like a snake
12. Well St. Nicholas what news
13. Zaccheus make haste and come down.
14. The conspiracy being crushed without bloodshed an inquiry into its origin could be carried out at leisure
15. Thus preciously freighted the spanish fleet sailed from Corunna
16. Cruel and savage as the Persecution had become it was still inadequate
17. Faith is opposed to infidelity hope to despair charity to enmity and hostility

* This rule, like that in regard to words of special importance, requires discretion on the part of the writer. Young and inexperienced writers are prone to apply it too frequently.

18. Elizabeth threw herself in front of Marie Antoinette exclaiming I am the queen

19. Kant said give me matter and I will build the world

20. Whatever happens Mary exclaims Elizabeth I am the wife of the Prince of Spain crown rank life all shall go before I will take any other husband

21. In this way we learned that miss Steele never succeeded in catching the doctor that Kitty Bennett was satisfactorily married by a clergyman near Pemberton that the "considerablesum" given by Mrs. Norris to William Price was one pound and that the letters placed by Churchill before Jane Fairfax which she swept away unread contained the word pardon

22. *Ars* in Latin is the contrary of *in-ers* it is the contrary of inaction it is action

23. there are five moods the indicative the potential the subjunctive the imperative and the infinitive

24. Princes have courtiers and merchants have partners the voluptuous have companions and the wicked have accomplices none but the virtuous have friends

25. in his last Moments He uttered these words i fall a sacrifice to sloth and luxury

26. Bacon Francis usually known as Lord bacon was born in London England Jan 22 1560 and died 1626 he was famous as a scholar a wit a lawyer a judge a statesman a politician but chiefly as a philosopher



FIGURES.

A Figure in language is some deviation from the usual mode of speech with a view of making the language more effective. This deviation may be in the *form* of a word, and then it relates to Orthography and Etymology; it may be in its *construction* with the other words of a sentence, and then it relates to Syntax; it may be in the *meaning* of a word, and then it relates to Rhetoric.

I. FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY AND ETYMOLOGY.

A Figure of Orthography or Etymology is some deviation from the usual *form* of a word. The principal figures of this

kind are eight; *Aphæresis*, *Syncope*, *Apocope*, *Prosthesis*, *Paragoge*, *Synæresis*, *Diæresis*, and *Tmesis*.

Aphæresis takes away a letter or a syllable from the beginning of a word; as, *'gan*, for *began*.

Syncope rejects a letter or syllable from the middle of a word; as, *lov'd*, for *loved*; *e'er*, for *ever*.

Apocope cuts off a letter or syllable from the end; as, *th'*, for *the*; *yon*, for *yonder*.

Prosthesis prefixes a letter or syllable to the beginning of a word; as, *enchain*, for *chain*; *adown*, for *down*.

Paragoge adds a letter or syllable to the end; as, *awaken*, for *awake*; *vasty*, for *vast*.

Synæresis is the contraction of two vowels or of two syllables into one; as, *walkst*, for *walkest*. Two words also are frequently contracted into one; as, *'Tis*, for *it is*; *'twas*, for *it was*; *we'll* for *we will*.

Diæresis is the mark *· ·* placed over the latter of two vowels to show that they are not to be sounded as a diphthong; as in *zoölogy*.

Tmesis separates a compound word by putting a word between; as, "*To God ward*," that is, "*Toward God*."

II. FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

A Figure of Syntax is some deviation from the ordinary construction of a word. The figures of this kind are usually reckoned four; *Ellipsis*, *Pleonasm*, *Enallage*, and *Hyperbaton*.

Ellipsis is the omission of words necessary to supply the regular or full construction; as, "Reading makes a full man; conversation [makes] a ready man; and writing [makes] an exact man."

Pleonasm is the use of superfluous words; as, "I went home full of a great many serious reflections." Here the words *a great many* should be cancelled, as unnecessary.

Enallage is the use of one part of speech for another; as, "*Slow rises merit, when by poverty depressed*."

Hyperbaton is the transposition of words; as, "Come, nymph demure." It frequently imparts energy to a sentence, and is very common in poetry.

III. FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

A Figure of Rhetoric is a deviation from the proper and literal *meaning* of a word or phrase.

The following are the principal Figures of Rhetoric: *Simile*, *Metaphor*, *Allegory*, *Personification*, *Antithesis*, *Metonymy*, *Synecdoche*, *Interrogation*, *Exclamation*, *Apostrophe*, *Hyperbole*, *Irony*.

Simile, Metaphor, Allegory, Personification, are founded upon resemblance.

Metonymy, Synecdoche, Apostrophe, Hyperbole, Irony, are based upon association.

A **Simile** is a formal comparison between two objects, expressed by the words *like* or *as*. Thus, we can say of a horse, "He is as *swift* as the *wind*;" and of a man, "He is as *firm* as a *rock*."

A **Metaphor** expresses a resemblance between two objects without the sign of comparison *like* or *as*; thus, "Thy word is a lamp to my feet, and a light to my path." A metaphor implies a comparison, and differs from a simile only in form, the sign of comparison being omitted. Thus, when I say, "A hero is *like* a lion," I use a simile; but when I say, "A hero *is* a lion." I employ a metaphor.

An **Allegory** is a description of one thing under the image of another: it is a sort of continued metaphor.

The following from the 80th Psalm is a beautiful allegory, in which the Jewish nation is represented under the symbol of a vine. "Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt: thou hast cast out the heathen and planted it. Thou preparedst room before it; and didst cause it to take deep root, and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it; and the boughs thereof were like the goodly cedars. It sent out its boughs into the sea and its branches into the river. Why hast thou broken down its hedges, so that all they who pass by the way do pluck it? The boar out of the wood doth waste it, and the wild beast of the field doth devour it."

Personification is that figure by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects; as, "The *thirsty* ground," "The *angry* ocean," "The mountains *saw* Thee, O Lord, and they *trembled*."

Metonymy (change of names) is not founded on resem-

blance, but on some other relation, such as cause and effect, effect and cause, sign and thing signified, container and thing contained. Thus, 1. The cause for the effect, or the author for his works; as, "I am reading *Virgil*;" that is, his *works*. 2. The effect for the cause; as, "*Gray hairs* should be respected;" that is, *old age*. 3. The container for the thing contained; as, "*The kettle boils*," meaning the *water*. 4. The sign for the thing signified; as, "He assumes the *sceptre*," that is, "He assumes the *sovereignty*."

A Synecdoche is a figure by which the whole is put for a part or a part for the whole, a definite for an indefinite number, etc.; as, "*Man* returns to the dust," meaning only his *body*, "He earns his *bread*," meaning *all the necessities* of life.

A Hyperbole is a figure that represents things as greater or less, better or worse, than they are in reality; thus, David, speaking of Saul and Jonathan, says, "They were *swifter than eagles*, they were *stronger than lions*." "The waves ran *mountains high*." Hyperbole is an exaggeration of the truth.

Apostrophe is a turning off from the subject of discourse, to address some other person or thing; as, "It advances, and with menacing aspect slides into the heart of the city, *O my country! ah! Ilium, the habitation of the gods!*" Personification and apostrophe so nearly coincide, that they are frequently confounded. The former, however, consists in giving life to inanimate objects, and the latter in abruptly addressing objects thus animated, or persons that are dead or absent.

Irony is a figure by which we express ourselves in a manner contrary to our thoughts, not with a view to deceive, but to add force to our observations. Thus, the prophet Elijah, in challenging the priests of Baal to prove the truth of their deity, ironically says, "Cry aloud, for he is a god; either he is talking, or he is pursuing, or he is on a journey, or peradventure he sleepeth, and must be awaked."

Interrogation is a question put, not to get an answer, but to express our own opinions more strongly. Thus, "The Lord is not a man that he should lie, neither the son of man that he should repent. *Hath he said it? and shall he not do it? Hath he spoken it, and shall he not make it good?*"

Exclamation is used to express agitated feeling, admira-

tion, wonder, surprise, anger, joy, etc.; thus, "O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and knowledge of God!"

Antithesis consists in putting two unlike things in juxtaposition, that each will appear more striking by the contrast; as, "The prodigal robs his heir; the miser robs himself."

In the following examples, name the figure of speech used, and explain it:

Man, like the generous vine, supported lives.

The Lord is my Shepherd.

The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold.

The sceptre shall not depart from Judah.

The chair decided the motion out of order.

In the preliminary contest, the crown was sustained.

They drank one bottle of wine.

He was invited to tea.

Plate sin with gold, and the strong lance of justice, shivering breaks; clothe it in rags, and a pigmy's straw doth pierce it.

A sail passed in the distance.

His gold could not save his life.

The ploughman homeward plods his weary way.

The sky saddens with the gathering storm.

To obtain soldiers for the army, Spain robbed the cradle and the grave.

Their furrow oft the stubborn glebe has broke.

The state was tottering to its fall.

Have you read Shakspeare?

His thoughts were shallow.

The pen is mightier than the sword.

Twenty sail were counted in the bay.

"The farmer sat in his easy chair,
Smoking his pipe of clay."

No doubt but ye are the people, and wisdom shall die with you.

O Death! where is thy sting?

O Grave! where is thy victory?

I will talk of things past or things to come.

And Brutus was an honorable man.

"She gathers up her robes of green and gold,
The fair sweet summer; and across the land
We see her go, with outward reaching hand."



UTTERANCE.

Utterance comprises the Articulation of Letters, the Pronunciation of Words, and the Delivery of Sentences.

ARTICULATION.

The proper articulation of letters can be acquired only by a thorough practice in all the sounds of all the letters. From a neglect of this practice arise such errors as mumbling, lisping, slurring, hesitating, and stammering.

PRONUNCIATION.

The utterance of words taken separately depends largely on the sounds or powers of the letters composing the word, the place and power of the accent, and the *quantity* of the syllable.

Accent is a stress of the voice, placed on a particular syllable in a word, by which that syllable is distinguished from the rest; as, pre'fix, disturb'.

The Quantity of the syllable is the time required to pronounce it. Quantity is either *long* or *short*.

The quantity of a syllable is long when the accent is on the vowel; as, gave, wise, make. The quantity of a syllable is short when the accent is on the consonant; as, last, not, pin.

THE DELIVERY OF SENTENCES.—ELOCUTION.

The proper Delivery of a Sentence or Discourse is based upon a knowledge of Emphasis, Pause, Inflection, and Tone.

Emphasis is a stress of voice laid upon a particular word, distinguishing it from the rest of the sentence.

Pause is a measurable cessation of the voice during reading or speaking. Pauses are restful to the reader, and in connection with emphasis and inflection, they enable the hearer to grasp the thought and emotion of the discourse in its greatest extent.

Inflection is that variation of the voice by which it passes from one key or pitch to another.

There are three inflections: the *Rising*, when the voice passes to a higher key; the *Falling*, when it passes to a lower key; and the *Circumflex*, when both are combined in the same word.

Tone is that modulation of the voice by which we express our varying sentiments and emotions.



VERSIFICATION.

Versification is the arrangement of words into poetical lines or verses.

I. VERSES.

A **poetical line** or **verse** consists of a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables, arranged according to fixed rules. It was originally called *verse*, from the Latin *verto*, I turn, because when we have finished one line, we *turn* back to commence another.

A **couplet** consists of two successive lines rhyming together.

A **triplet** consists of three successive lines rhyming together.

A **stanza** is a combination of several lines, varying in number according to the poet's fancy, and constituting a regular division of a poem or song. The word *verse*, which strictly means only a single line, is often incorrectly used for stanza.

Rhyme is, for the most part, the correspondence of the last sound of one line to the last sound of another.

Blank verse is the name given to that species of poetry which is without rhyme.

II. FEET.

Feet are the smaller portions into which a line or verse is divided. They are called feet, because by their aid the voice steps along, as it were, through the verse in a measured pace.

The syllables which mark this regular movement of the voice, should, in some manner, be distinguished from the others. This distinction was made among the ancient Romans, by dividing their syllables into long and short; and the long syllables, being the more important, marked the movement.

In English, syllables are, for this purpose, divided into accented and unaccented; the accented syllables, which show the movement, are distinguished by the mark of a *long* syllable, and the unaccented by the mark of a *short* syllable.

The feet ordinarily used in English poetry are four in number; two of two syllables, and two of three syllables.

Feet of two syllables.

1. An Iambus $\sim -$; as, dēfēnd.
2. A Trochee $- \sim$; as, nōblē.

Feet of three syllables.

3. An Anapæst $\sim \sim -$; as, ĭntērcēde.
4. A Dactyl $- \sim \sim$; as, vīrtūōŭs.

III. KINDS OF VERSE.

The kind of verse to which any piece of poetry belongs depends upon the kind of foot by which it is chiefly formed. Hence it is styled *Iambic*, *Trochaic*, *Anapæstic*, or *Dactylic verse*, according as the prevailing foot is an Iambus, a Trochee, an Anapæst, or a Dactyl.

Each of these kinds of verse is subdivided according to the number of feet or metres in a line. A line consisting of only one foot is called a *Monometer*; of two feet, a *Dimeter*; of three feet, a *Trimeter*; of four feet, a *Tetrameter*; of five feet, a *Pentameter*; of six feet, a *Hexameter*. There being thus six different lengths for each of the four kinds of verse, we have in all twenty-four varieties. These are exhibited in the following tables:

I. Iambic.

- 1.—*Monometer*, $\sim - \mid$
| āwāke |
- 2.—*Dimeter*, $\sim - \mid \sim - \mid$
| tū mē | thē rōse |
- 3.—*Trimeter*, $\sim - \mid \sim - \mid \sim - \mid$
| ĭn plā | cēs fār | ānd nēar |
- 4.—*Tetrameter*, $\sim - \mid \sim - \mid \sim - \mid \sim - \mid$
| ānd māy | āt lāst | mŷ wēa | rŷ āge |
- 5.—*Pentameter*, $\sim - \mid \sim - \mid \sim - \mid \sim - \mid \sim - \mid$
| hōw lōved | hōw vāl | uēd ōnce | āvails | thēe nōt |
- 6.—*Hexameter*, $\sim - \mid \sim - \mid \sim - \mid \sim - \mid \sim - \mid \sim - \mid$
| thŷ reālm | fōrēv | ēr lāsts | thŷ ōwn | Mēssī | āh rēigns |

2. Trochaic.

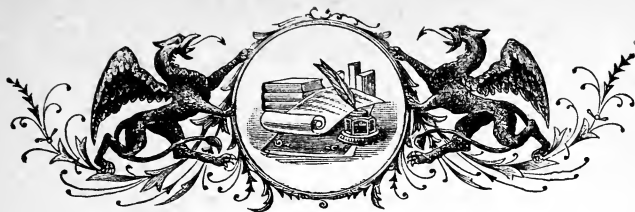
- 1.—*Monometer*, | - ∪ |
| mērcēȝ |
- 2.—*Dimeter*, | - ∪ | - ∪ |
| ōn thē | mōuntain |
- 3.—*Trimeter*, | - ∪ | - ∪ | - ∪ |
| whēn oūr | hēarts āre | mōurnīng |
- 4.—*Tetrameter*, | - ∪ | - ∪ | - ∪ | - ∪ |
| lōvelȝ | Thāls | sīts bē | sīde thēe |
- 5.—*Pentameter*, | - ∪ | - ∪ | - ∪ | - ∪ | - ∪ |
| Sātȝrs | bȝ thē | brōoklēt | lōve tō | dāllȝ |
- 6.—*Hexameter*, | - ∪ | - ∪ | - ∪ | - ∪ | - ∪ | - ∪ |
| ōn ā | mōuntain | strētched bē | nēath ā | hōarȝ | willōw |

3. Anapæstic.

- 1.—*Monometer*, | ∪ ∪ - |
| rēfēree |
- 2.—*Dimeter*, | ∪ ∪ - | ∪ ∪ - |
| ōn thē plaīn | ās hē strōde |
- 3.—*Trimeter*, | ∪ ∪ - | ∪ ∪ - | ∪ ∪ - |
| I wōuld hīde | wīth thē bēasts | ōf thē chāse |
- 4.—*Tetrameter*, | ∪ ∪ - | ∪ ∪ - | ∪ ∪ - | ∪ ∪ - |
| whēn rēpō | sīng thāt nīght | ōn mȝ pāl | lēt ōf strāw |
- 5.—*Pentameter*,
| ∪ ∪ - | ∪ ∪ - | ∪ - - | ∪ ∪ - | ∪ ∪ - |
| ōn thē wārm | chēek ōf yōūth | thē gāȝ smīle | ānd thē rōse | ēvēr blēnd |
- 6.—*Hexameter*,
| ∪ ∪ - | ∪ ∪ - | ∪ ∪ - | ∪ ∪ - | ∪ ∪ - | ∪ ∪ - |
| būt thē leāves | āre bēgīn | nīng tō wīth | ēr ānd drōop | ānd thēȝ dīe | īn ā dāȝ |

4. Dactylic.

- 1.—*Monometer*, | - ∪ ∪ |
| mērcīfūl |
- 2.—*Dimeter*, | - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ |
| tāke hēr ūp | tēndērlȝ |
- 3.—*Trimeter*, | - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ |
| wēarȝ ānd | wōrn shē ā | wāitēd thēe |
- 4.—*Tetrameter*, | - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ |
| fādēd thē | vāpōrs thāt | sēemed tō ēn | cōnīpāss hīm |
- 5.—*Pentameter*, | - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ |
| līfe hāth īts | plēasūres būt | fādīng āre | thēȝ ās thē | flōwērēt |
- 6.—*Hexameter*,
| - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ | - ∪ ∪ |
| ōvēr thē | vālley wīth | spēd līke thē | wīnd āll thē | stēēds wēre ā | gāllopīng |



SELECTIONS

FOR

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.



Directions.—Divide the given extracts into separate, complete propositions, and name the kind of sentence each one constitutes. If the sentence is simple, name the subject, the predicate, and the modifiers of each. If the sentence is compound, name the separate members, and give the subject, predicate, and modifiers of each member. Give the connective. If the sentence is complex, name the principal propositions and the dependent clause or clauses. Give the subject, predicate, and modifiers of each. State whether the clause is an adjectival, adverbial, or substantive modifier. Name the connectives.

To paraphrase a poem or poetical extract, rewrite it in prose form, using other words, if necessary, for the purpose of making its meaning clearer. The proper grammatical position of the words should be observed.

A WAKE! for morning in the bowl of night
Has flung the stone that puts the stars to flight;
And lo! the hunter of the east has caught
The sultan's turret in a noose of light.



TO do God's will that's all
That need concern us; not to carp or ask
The meaning of it; but to ply our task
Whatever may befall,
Accepting good or ill as He shall send,
And wait until the end.

MEN are but children of a larger growth;
 Our appetites as apt to change as theirs,
 And full as craving too, and full as vain;
 And yet the soul shut up in her dark room,
 Viewing so clear abroad, at home sees nothing;
 But like a mole in earth, busy and blind,
 Works all her folly up, and casts it outward
 To the world's open view.



THE clouds which rise with thunder slake
 Our thirsty souls with rain;
 The blow most dreaded falls to break
 From off our limbs a chain;
 And wrongs of man to man but make
 The love of God more plain;
 As, through the shadowy lens of even,
 The eye looks farthest into heaven,
 On gleams of star and depths of blue
 The glaring sunshine never knew.



THESE our actors,
 As I foretold you, were all spirits, and
 Are melted into air, into thin air;
 And, like the baseless fabric of this vision,
 The cloud-capped towers, the gorgeous palaces,
 The solemn temples, the great globe itself,
 Yea, all which it inherit, shall dissolve,
 And like this insubstantial pageant faded,
 Leave not a rack behind. We are such stuff
 As dreams are made of, and our little life
 Is rounded with a sleep.



WHO can tell what a baby thinks?
 Who can follow the gossamer links

By which the mannikin feels his way
Out from the shore of the great unknown,
Blind and wailing and alone
Into the light of day?
Out from the shore of the unknown sea,
Tossing in pitiful agony;
Of the unknown sea that reels and rolls,
Specked with the barks of little souls,—
Barks that were launched on the other side,
And slipped from Heaven on an ebbing tide?



WE knew it would rain, for all the morn
A spirit on slender ropes of mist
Was lowering its golden buckets down
Into the vapory amethyst
Of marshes and swamps and dismal fens;
Scooping the dew that lay in the flowers,
Dipping the jewels out of the sea,
To scatter them over the land in showers.
We knew it would rain, for the poplars showed
The white of their leaves, and the amber grain
Shrunk in the wind,—and the lightning now
Is tangled in tremulous skeins of rain.



YE whose hearts are fresh and simple,
Who have faith in God and Nature,
Who believe, that in all ages
Every human heart is human,
That in even savage bosoms,
There are longings, yearnings, strivings,
For the good they comprehend not,
That the feeble hands and helpless,
Groping blindly in the darkness,
Touch God's right hand in that darkness,
And are lifted up and strengthened;
Listen to this simple story,
To this Song of Hiawatha!

TAKE joy home,
 And make a place in thy great heart for her,
 And give her time to grow, and cherish her;
 Then will she come and oft will sing to thee,
 When thou art working in the furrows; ay,
 Or weeding in the sacred hour of dawn.

It is a comely fashion to be glad;

Joy is the grace we say to God.

There is a rest remaining. Hast thou sinned?

There is a sacrifice. Lift up thy head:

The lovely world and the over-world alike

Ring with a song eterne, a happy rede:

“Thy Father loves thee.”



FOR strength is born of struggle, faith of doubt,

Of discord law, and freedom of oppression:

We hail from Pisgah, with exulting shout,

The promised land below us, bright with sun,

And deem its pastures won,

Ere toil and blood have earned us the possession!

Each aspiration of our human earth

Becomes an act through keenest pangs of birth;

Each force, to bless, must cease to be a dream,

And conquer life through agony supreme;

Each inborn right must outwardly be tested

By stern material weapons, ere it stand

In the enduring fabric of the land,

Secured for those who yielded it, and those who wrested.



THE quality of mercy is not strained—

It droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven

Upon the place beneath: it is twice blessed;

It blesteth him that gives and him that takes;

'Tis mightiest in the mightiest; it becomes

The thronéd monarch better than his crown.

His sceptre shows the force of temporal power,

The attribute to awe and majesty,

Wherein doth sit the dread and fear of kings;

But mercy is above this sceptred sway,—
It is enthronéd in the hearts of kings ;
It is an attribute to God himself ;
And earthly power doth then show likest God's,
When mercy seasons justice.

WHEN I consider how my light is spent
Ere half my days, in this dark world and wide,
And that one talent which is death to hide,
Lodged with me useless, though my soul more bent
To serve therewith my Maker, and present
My true account, lest He, returning, chide ;
“Doth God exact day labor, light denied ?”
I fondly ask ; but Patience, to prevent
That murmur, soon replies,—“God doth not need
Either's man's work, or His own gifts ; who best
Bear His mild yoke, they serve Him best ; His state
Is kingly ; thousands at His bidding speed,
And post o'er land and ocean without rest ;
They, also, serve who only stand and wait.”

SAIL ON, sail on, thou ship of state,
Sail on, O Union, strong and great.
Humanity with all its fears,
Is hanging breathless on thy fate.
We know what Master laid thy keel,
What workmen wrought thy ribs of steel ;
Who made each mast and sail and rope,
What anvils rang, what hammers beat.
Fear not each sudden sound and shock,
'Tis of the wave and not the rock.
'Tis but the flapping of the sail,
'Tis but a rent made by the gale.
In spite of rock and tempest's roar,
In spite of false lights on the shore ;
Sail on, nor fear to breast the sea !
Our hearts, our hopes are all with thee.

BREATHES there a man with soul so dead,
 Who never to himself hath said,
 This is my own, my native land!
 Whose heart hath ne'er within him burned,
 As home his footsteps he hath turned
 From wandering on a foreign strand!
 If such there breathe, go mark him well;
 For him no minstrel raptures swell;
 High though his titles, proud his name,
 Boundless his wealth, as wish can claim;
 Despite those titles, power, and pelf,
 The wretch, concentred all in self,
 Living, shall forfeit fair renown,
 And, doubly dying, shall go down
 To the vile dust from whence he sprung,
 Unwept, unhonored, and unsung.



SO you fell just now in the mud, poor heart!
 And to try to rise and be clean is vain?
 Take both my hands, now, and do your part,
 So you stand on your feet again.
 Did nobody tell you your feet might slip?
 Did some one push you? Such things are done.
 Was your path so rough that you needs must trip?
 Ah! the blame is on many—not on one.
 Sobbing still over that ugly stain?
 I may not comfort or hush you, dear,
 Through such sad tears in their burning rain
 Christ and his cross show clear.
 Must you go sorrowing all your day?
 Dear, in suffering, souls grow white;
 Keep my hand through the stony way—
 See where the west turns bright.



THE snow had begun in the gloaming,
 And busily all the night
 Had been heaping field and highway
 With a silence deep and white.

Every pine and fir and hemlock
Wore ermine too dear for an earl,
And the poorest twig on the elm-tree
Was ridged inch deep with pearl.

From sheds new-roofed with Carrara
Came Chanticleer's muffled crow,
The stiff rails were softened to swan's-down,
And still fluttered down the snow.

I stood and watched by the window
The noiseless work of the sky,
And the sudden flurries of snow-birds,
Like brown leaves whirling by.



I MOURN no more my vanished years :
Beneath a tender rain,
An April rain of smiles and tears,
My heart is young again.

The airs of spring may never play
Among the ripening corn,
Nor freshness of the flowers of May
Blow through the autumn morn ;

Yet shall the blue-eyed gentian look
Through fringed lids to heaven,
And the pale aster, in the brook
Shall see its image given ;

The woods shall wear their robes of praise,
The south-wind softly sigh,
And sweet, calm days in golden haze
Melt down the amber sky.



I LIKE a blind spinner in the sun,
I tread my days ;
I know that all the threads will run
Appointed ways ;
I know each day will bring its task,
And, being blind, no more I ask.

I do not know the use or name
 Of that I spin ;
 I only know that some one came
 And laid within
 My hand the thread, and said : " Since you
 Are blind, but one thing you can do."
 Sometimes the threads so rough and fast
 And tangled fly,
 I know wild storms are sweeping past,
 And fear that I
 Shall fall ; but dare not try to find
 A safer place, since I am blind.



OUT of the bosom of the air,
 Out of the cloud-folds of her garments shaken,
 Over the woodlands brown and bare,
 Over the harvest-fields forsaken,
 Silent and soft and slow
 Descends the snow.

Even as our cloudy fancies take
 Suddenly shape in some divine expression,
 Even as the troubled heart doth make
 In the white countenance confession,
 The troubled sky reveals
 The grief it feels.

This is the poem of the air,
 Slowly in silent syllables recorded !
 This is the secret of despair,
 Long in its cloudy bosom hoarded,
 Now whispered and revealed,
 To wood and field.



ABOU BEN ADHEM—may his tribe increase!—
 Awoke one night from a deep dream of peace,
 And saw, within the moonlight in his room,
 Making it rich and like a lily in bloom,
 An angel writing in a book of gold.

Exceeding peace had made Ben Adhem bold,
And to the presence in the room he said,
"What writest thou?" The vision raised its head,
And with a voice made all of sweet accord,
Answered, "The names of those who love the Lord."

"And is mine one?" said Abou. "Nay, not so,"
Replied the angel. Abou spoke more low,
But cheerily still, and said, "I pray thee, then,
Write me as one who loves his fellow-men."

The angel wrote and vanished. The next night
It came again with a great wakening light,
And showed the names whom love of God had blessed
And lo! Ben Adhem's name led all the rest.



WHAT constitutes a state?
Not high-raised battlement or labored mound,
Thick wall or moated gate,
Nor cities proud with spires and turrets crowned;
Not bays and broad-armed posts,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Not starred and spangled courts,
Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride.
No: men, high-minded men,
With powers as far above dull brutes endued
In forest, brake, or den,
As beasts excel cold rocks and brambles rude;
Men who their duties know,
But know their rights, and knowing, dare maintain,
Prevent the long-aimed blow,
And crush the tyrant while they rend the chain:
These constitute a state,
And sovereign Law, that state's collected will,
O'er thrones and globes elate
Sits empress, crowning good, repressing ill;
Smit by her sacred frown,
The fiend Discretion like a vapor sinks,
And e'en the all-dazzling Crown
Hides his faint rays, and at her bidding shrinks.

Lincoln's Address at Gettysburg.

THE world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us, that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth.



The Traveller.

AND every time his own passport is inspected, every time he enters a new dominion or crosses a new frontier, every time he is delayed at the custom house, or questioned by a policeman, or challenged by a sentinel, every time he is perplexed by a new language, or puzzled by a new variety of coinage or currency,—he thanks his God with fresh fervency that through all the length and breadth of that land beyond the swelling floods, which he is privileged and proud to call his own land, there is a common language, a common currency, a common Constitution, common laws and liberties, a common inheritance of glory from the past, and, if it be only true to itself, a common destiny of glory for the future!

Robert C. Winthrop.



The Declaration of Independence.

IT will be “acted o’er,” fellow-citizens, but it can never be repeated. It stands, and must forever stand, alone; a beacon on the summit of the mountain, to which all the inhabitants of the earth may turn eyes, for a genial and saving light, till time shall be lost in eternity, and this globe itself dissolve, nor leave a wreck behind. It stands forever, a light

of admonition to the rulers of men, a light of salvation and redemption to the oppressed. So long as this planet shall be inhabited by human beings, so long as man shall be of a social nature, so long as government shall be necessary to the great moral purposes of society, so long as it shall be abused to the purposes of oppression—so long shall this Declaration hold out, to the sovereign and to the subject, the extent and the boundaries of their respective rights and duties, founded in the laws of nature and of nature's God.

John Quincy Adams.



A New Year's Resolve.

AS the dead year is clasped by a dead December,
So let your dead sins with your dead days lie.

A new life is yours, and a new hope! Remember

We build our ladders to climb to the sky.

Stand out in the promise of sunlight, forgetting

Whatever your past held of sorrow or wrong;

We waste half our strength in a useless regretting,

We sit by old tombs in the dark too long.

Have you missed in your aim? Well, the mark is still shining;

Did you faint in the race? Well, take breath for the next;

Did the clouds drive you back? But, see yonder their lining;

Were you tempted and fell? Let it serve for a text.

As each year hurries by let it join that procession

Of skeleton shapes that march down to the past.

While you take your place in the line of progression

With your eyes on the heavens, your face to the blast.

I tell you the future can hold no terrors

For any sad soul while the stars revolve,

If he will but stand firm on the grave of his errors,

And instead of regretting, resolve, resolve!

It is never too late to begin rebuilding,

Though all into ruins your life seems hurled.

For look! how the light of the New Year is gilding,

The worn, wan face of the bruised old world!

Ella Wheeler Wilcox.

Lines on a Skeleton.

BEHOLD this ruin! 'Twas a skull
Once of ethereal spirit full.
This narrow cell was Life's retreat,
This space was Thought's mysterious seat.
What beauteous visions filled this spot!
What dreams of pleasure long forgot!
Nor Hope, nor Joy, nor Love, nor Fear,
Have left one trace of record here.

Beneath this mouldering canopy,
Once shone the bright and busy eye;
But start not at the dismal void—
If social love that eye employed,
If with no lawless fire it gleamed,
But through the dews of kindness beamed,
That eye shall be forever bright
When stars and sun are sunk in night.

Within this hollow cavern hung
The ready, swift, and tuneful tongue.
If falsehood's honey it disdained,
And when it could not praise, was chained,
If bold in Virtue's cause it spoke,
Yet gentle concord never broke!
This silent tongue shall plead for thee
When time unveils Eternity.



The American Flag.

WHEN Freedom, from her mountain height,
Unfurled her standard to the air,
She tore the azure robe of night,
And set the stars of glory there.
She mingled with its gorgeous dyes
The milky baldric of the skies,
And striped its pure, celestial white,
With streakings of the morning light;

Then, from his mansion in the sun,
 She called her eagle bearer down,
 And gave into his mighty hand
 The symbol of her chosen land.

Majestic monarch of the cloud,
 Who rear'st aloft thy regal form.
 To hear the tempest trummings loud
 And see the lightning lances driven,
 When strive the warriors of the storm,
 And rolls the thunder-drum of heaven,
 Child of the sun! to thee 'tis given
 To guard the banner of the free,
 To hover in the sulphur smoke,
 To ward away the battle-stroke,
 And bid its blendings shine afar,
 Like rainbows on the cloud of war,
 The harbingers of victory!

J. Rodman Drake.



“Down to Sleep.”

NOVEMBER woods are bare and still;
 November days are clear and bright;
 Each noon burns up the morning's chill;
 The morning's snow is gone by night;
 Each day my steps grow slow, grow light,
 As through the woods I reverent creep,
 Watching all things lie “down to sleep.”

I never knew before what beds,
 Fragrant to smell, and soft to touch,
 The forest sifts and shapes and spreads;
 I never knew before how much
 Of human sound there is in such
 Low tones as through the forests sweep
 When all wild things lie “down to sleep.”

Each day I find new coverlids
Tucked in, and more sweet eyes shut tight;
Sometimes the viewless mother bids
Her ferns kneel down, full in my sight;
I hear their chorus of "good night;"
And half I smile, and half I weep,
Listening while they lie "down to sleep."

November woods are bare and still;
November days are bright and good;
Life's noon burns up life's morning chill;
Life's night rests feet which long have stood;
Some warm, soft bed, in field or wood,
The mother will not fail to keep
Where we can "lay us down to sleep."

Helen Hunt Jackson.



In School Days.

STILL sits the school-house by the road,
A ragged beggar sunning;
Around it still the sumachs grow,
And blackberry vines are running.

Within, the master's desk is seen,
Deep scarred by raps official;
The warping floor, the battered seats,
The jack-knife's carved initial—

The charcoal frescoes on its walls,
Its door's worn sill, betraying
The feet that, creeping slow to school,
Went storming out to playing!

Long years ago a winter's sun
Shone over it at setting;
Lit up its western window-panes,
And low eaves' icy fretting.

It touched the tangled golden curls,
And brown eyes full of grieving,
Of one who still her steps delayed
When all the school were leaving.

For near her stood the little boy
Her childish favor singled,
His cap pulled low upon a face
Where pride and shame were mingled.

Pushing with restless feet the snow
To right and left he lingered,
As restlessly her tiny hands
The blue-checked apron fingered.

He saw her lift her eyes; he felt
The soft hands light caressing,
And heard the trembling of her voice,
As if a fault confessing.

"I'm sorry that I spelt the word;
I hate to go above you,
Because"—the brown eyes lower fell—
"Because, you see, I love you!"

Whittier.



Love of Country and of Home.

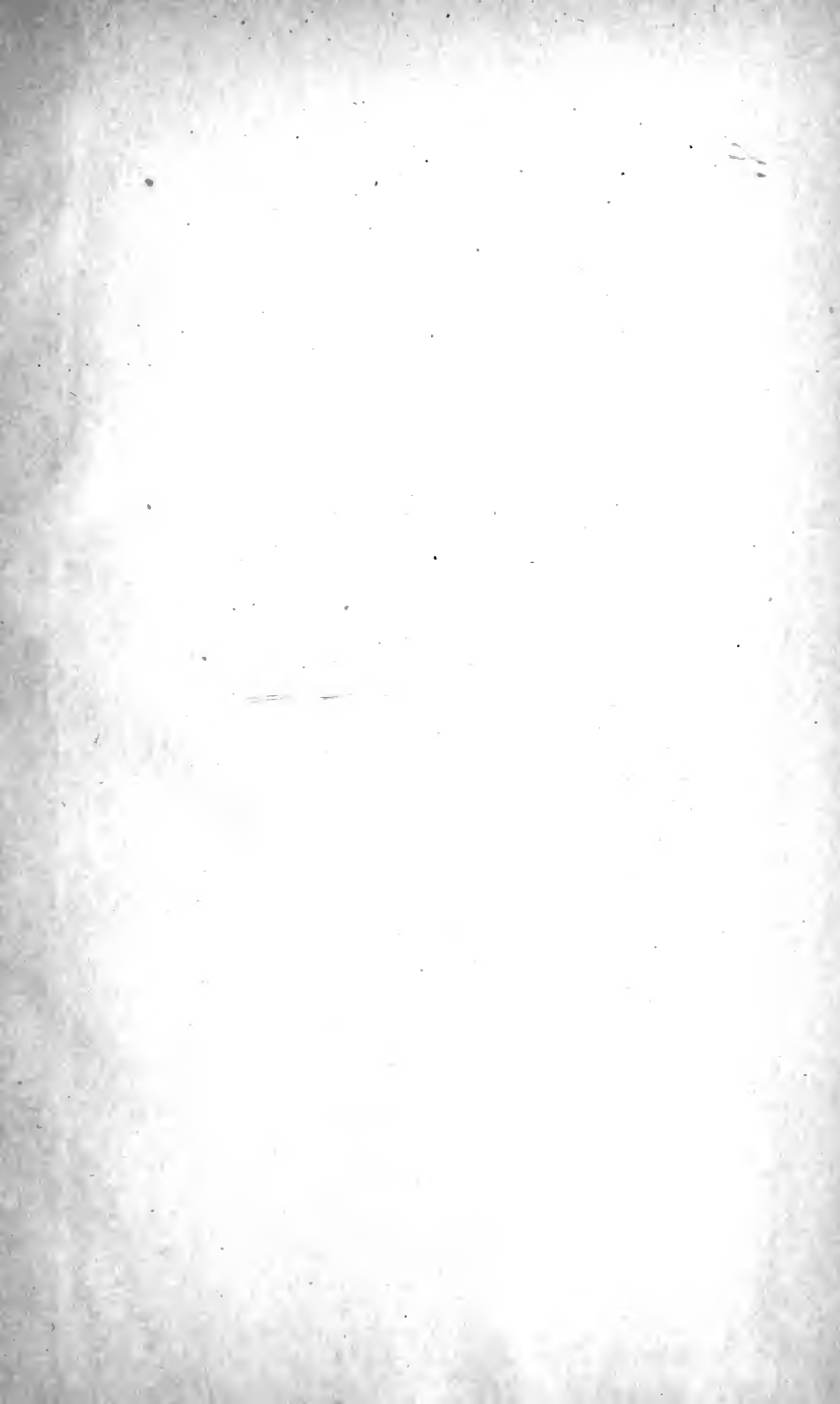
THERE is a land, of every land the pride,
Beloved by heaven o'er all the world beside,
Where brighter suns dispense serener light,
And milder moons imparadise the night—
A land of beauty, virtue, valor, truth,
Time-tutored age, and love-exalted youth.
The wandering mariner, whose eye explores
The wealthiest isles, the most enchanting shores,
Views not a realm so beautiful and fair,
Nor breathes the spirit of a purer air;
In every clime, the magnet of his soul,
Touched by remembrance, trembles to that pole;

For, in this land of heaven's peculiar grace,
The heritage of nature's noblest race,
There is a spot of earth supremely blest,
A dearer, sweeter spot than all the rest,
Where man, creation's tyrant, casts aside
His sword and sceptre, pageantry and pride,
While in his softened looks benignly blend
The sire, the son, the husband, brother, friend.
Here woman reigns ; the mother, daughter, wife,
Strews with fresh flowers the narrow way of life ;
In the clear heaven of her delightful eye,
An angel-guard of loves and graces lie ;
Around her knees domestic duties meet,
And fireside pleasures gambol at her feet.
"Where shall that land, that spot of earth be found?"
Art thou a man, a patriot? look around ;
Oh ! thou shalt find, howe'er thy footsteps roam,
That land thy country, and that spot thy home.

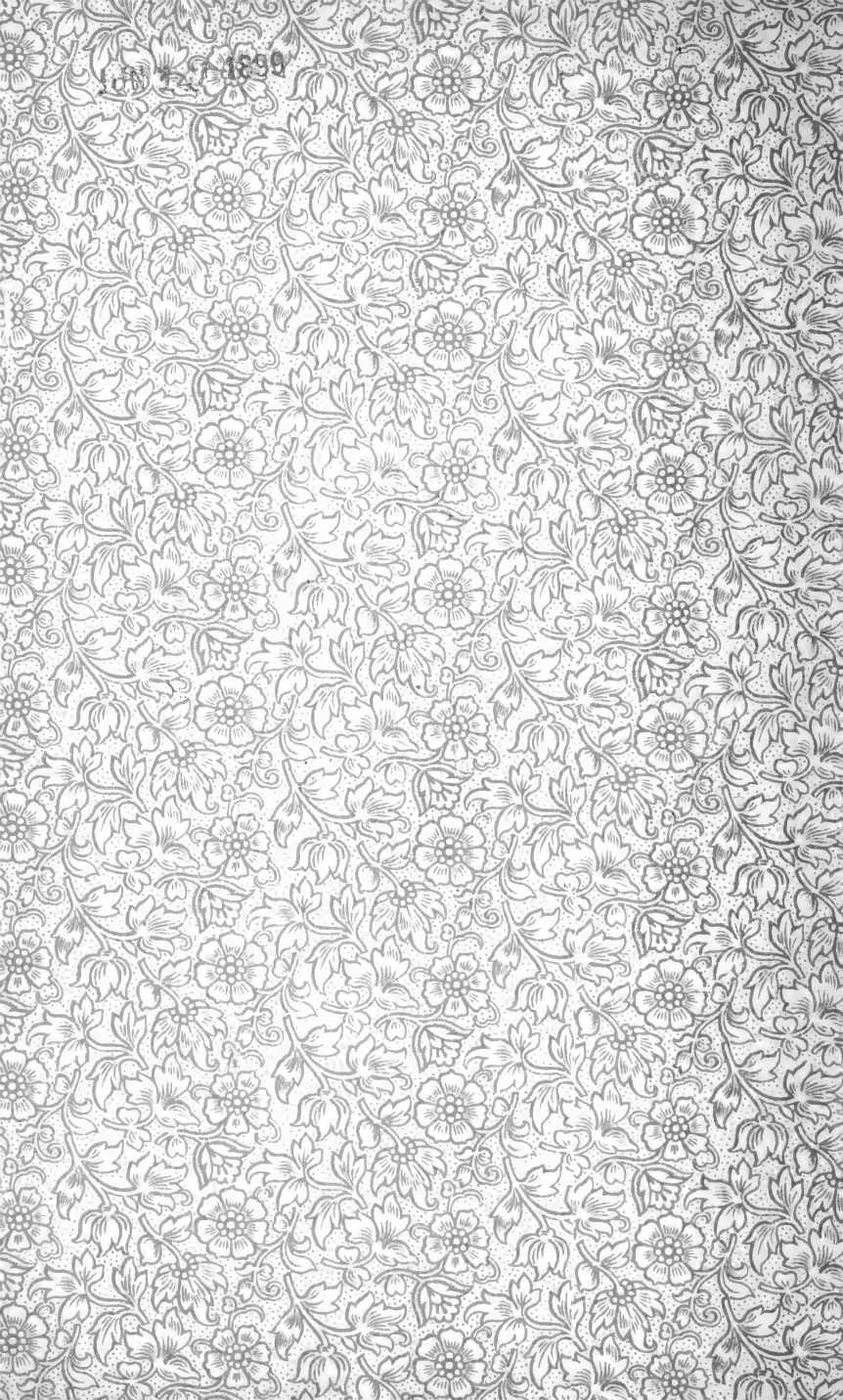
James Montgomery.

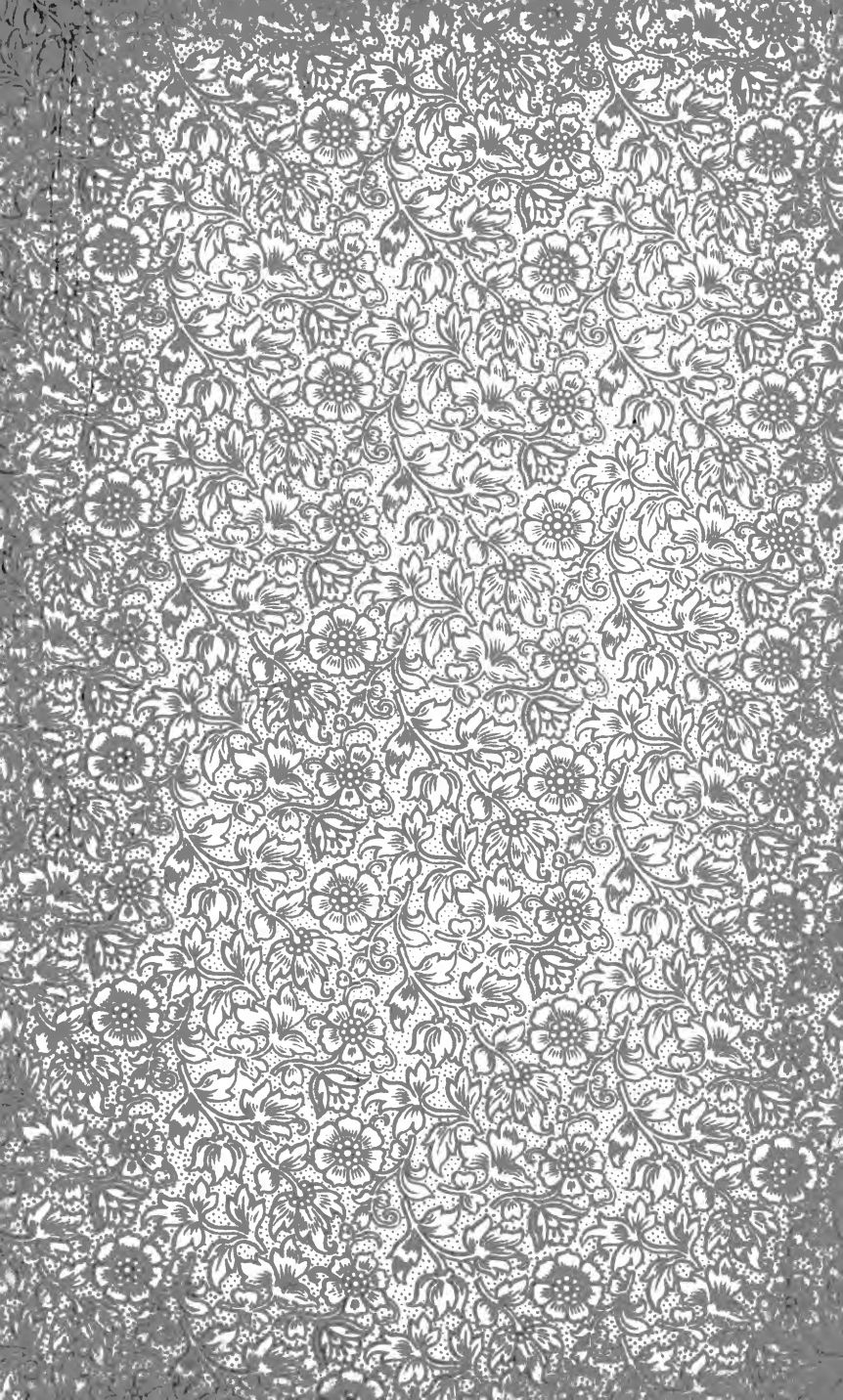






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